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ABSTRACT

Asia and the Pacific region is a vast area with a great variety of countries and territories in terms of economic development, political ideology, and cultural heritage. Education in the region is diverse both in terms of structure and policies, and of educational thoughts and practices in schools. The entire region has made considerable progress in the past decades. That even the rural South Asian countries saw encouraging economic growth indicates favorable soil for educational development. Reform has been the main theme in education in the region. Despite the diverse objectives in the reforms, commonalities do emerge. There is a general tendency to decentralize the administration and finance of education, and to create new sources of finance. In terms of educational planning, human resources development has become the central concern, either explicitly or implicitly. On one hand, there is movement toward micro-level planning so that education may better serve local needs and encourage local initiatives. On the other hand, there also is the trend to move away from purely economic and manpower considerations, and to carry out educational planning in an integrated and multi-level manner. Despite various problems and difficulties, prospects of education development in the region are generally optimistic, provided that economic situations do not deteriorate and political situations remain stable. Ten annexes are included. A number of tables and figures appear throughout this document. (DB)

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REGIONAL STUDY

REVIEW AND PROSPECTS OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

CHENG KAI MING

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EDUCATIONAL PLANNING, ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT IN ASIA AND PACIFIC

A Regional Study

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University of Hong Kong

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ABSTRACT

Asia and the Pacific is a vast area with a great variety of countries and territories in terms of economic development, political ideology and cultural heritage. Educatgion in the region are inevitably diverse both in terms of structure and policies, and of educational thoughts and practice in schools.

Nevertheless, the entire region was considerable progress in the decades passed. In economy, the NIEs exhibited extra-ordinary advancements and are beginning to challenge the industrialized countries in the region. The NIEs themselves, however, are in turn being challenged by the advanced countries in Southeast Asia. Even the South Asian countries, which are rural in the main, saw encouraging economic growth. Such an economic situation, together with the comparatively stable political scene, gives education a favourable soil for genuine development.

Reform has been the main theme in education in the region. Despite the diverse objectives in the reforms, commonalities do emerge. There is the general tendency to decentralize the administration and finance of education, and to create new sources of finance. There is also the general tendency to move away from purely quantitative expansion and attend to qualitative issues.

In terms of educational planning, human resources development has become the central concern, either explicitly or implicitly. On the one hand, there is the move towards micro-level planning so that education may better serve local needs and to encourage local initiatives. On the other hand, there is also the trend to move away from purely economic and manpower considerations, and to carry out educational planning in an integrated and multi-level manner. Micro-planning and integrated planning is particularly prevalent in the realm of basic education.

Decentralization inevitable involves new styles of governance and co-ordination, and the consequential demand for training and capacity building in educational. The past decades have seen new local training facilities which not only train local planners and managers, but also develop nation- and culture- specific concepts of educational planning and management.

Despite various problems and difficulties, prospects of education development in the region are in general optimistic, provided that economic situations do not deteriorate and political situations remain stable.

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INTRODUCTION

It seems justified to start this paper by borrowing from a recent report from UNESCO's Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific (PROAP):

> The huge area defined as UNESCO's Asia and Pacific region, extending as it does from Turkey in the west to Somoa in the east and with national populations that range from 150,000 to a billion - is so culturally, demographically and economicaly diverse that a survey of [education] ...in it almost defies imagination. (PROAP, 1989a:1)

On the one hand, there is the People's Republic of China, with a population of over 1.1 billion, and with a per capita income of US$280. On the other hand, there is Brunei Derrasalum, a country of around 240,000 in population, but has a per capita income of US$17,000 (Asia Week Alumnac, 1988).

Apart from characteristics of population and wealth, the region is also one with heterogeneous cultures: the more visible being the Confucian, Indian and Islamic cultures; while New Zealand and Australia belong to the prevailing Western culture. It is understandable, then, that uniformity in educational thoughts and practices is inconceivable in this region. Quite the opposite, the region desplays the most splendid spectrum of thoughts and practices in education. The purpose of this paper is, therefore, not so much to identify a general picture of educational planning, administration and management which is representative of all countries of the region, but to delineate the spectrum of diversity that exists in the region. Nevertheless, some commonalities do emerge when compared with other regions in the world, and these will be discussed as issues in the following sections.

BACKGROUND

The region of Asia and Pacific is usually meant to include Asia proper, Australia, New Zealand and the South Pacific Islands. Although in UNESCO classification, the region also includes Cyprus and USSR as its member countries. Education in USSR, however, will be discussed in the European regional paper. Education in the Arab countries are also dealt with in a separate paper.

The Economy

The region covers highly industrialized countries (such as Japan, Australia and New Zealand), the Newly Industrialized Economies (NIE's, for example, Hong Kong, Singapore and the Republic of Korea), the advanced developing countries (e.g. Thailand and Malaysia), the less developed countries (including China and India) and the small countries (mainly in the South Pacific). Annex 1 displays the listing of the countries in the region against their estimated GNPs and other relevant economic indicators.

The past decade sees a general progress in the economy in most of the countries in the region. Between 1980 and 1988, the average GNP growth rate of the developing Asian countries was 7% per annum, comparing favourable with the world growth rate of 3% and less than 2% in developing countries in the same period. According to the Asian Development Bank, a comaprison of the growth rates of different parts of the world again favours the Asian region (Asian Development Outlook, 1989:2):

Table 1: Annual Growth Rate of GNP by Regions

Developing Asia	9%
Western hemisphere	0.9%
Africa	1.7%
Europe	2.5
Middle East	3.9

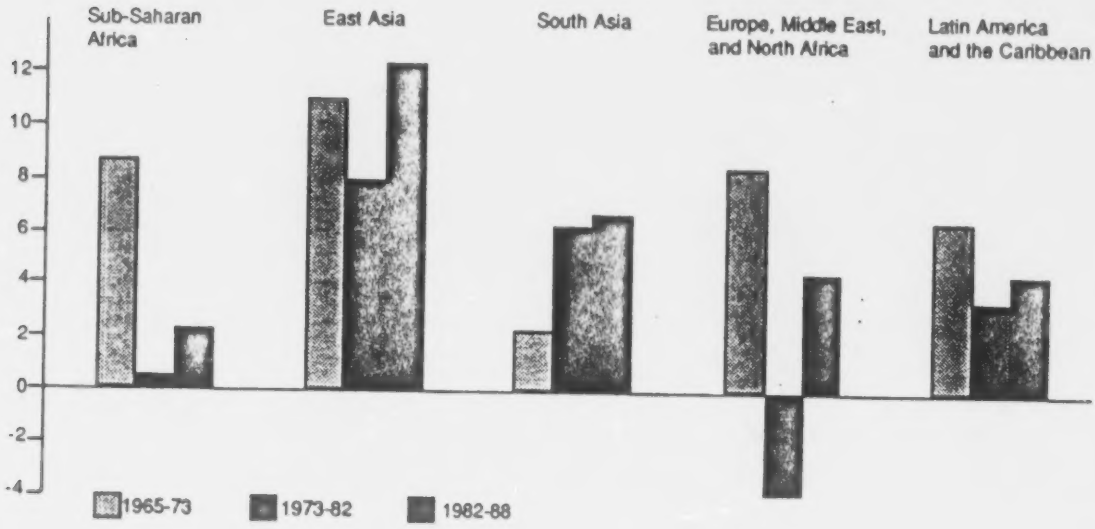
[Source: ADB, 1989:2.]

Among the countries, the NIEs, despite minor readjustments, saw growth rates of 10.7%, 11.8% and 9% respectively in the years 1986, 1987 and 1988. The Southeast Asian countries were also impressive in rising from a growth rate of 3.2% in 1986 to 7.2% in 1988, the growth being mainly attributable to industrial growth. They are likely to become new competitors to the NIEs. On the contrary, the South Asian countries saw their impressive growth 7.8% in 1988 mainly as a result of the recovery in the agricultural output. The most eye-catching growth was still China, at a rate of 11.2% in 1988, but the South Pacific countries also recovered from declines in previous years.

In World Bank's latest *World Development Report* (1989), Hong Kong and Singapore, with GNP per capita around US$8,000 in 1987, for the first time joined Japan, Australia and New Zealand as "High-income economies", whereas small Asian countries such as Bhutan, Nepal, and gigantic countries such as China and India were still in the lowest income group (US$300 or below).

The economic success of the region is very much attributable to exports (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Growth of Export Volumes in Developing Countries
(by regions, 1965-1988, average annual percentage change)



[Source: World Bank, 1989:10]

In fact, the more successful economies in the region are largely export-oriented (Annex 1). In a World Bank classification of 41 developing economies by trade orientation, in the period 1973-85, Hong Kong, Republic of Korea and Singapore are the only members in the category *Strongly outward oriented* (World Bank, 1987:83). Almost without exception, they all started with labour-intensive industries, but are now facing challenges of high-technology when improvement in the economy has also pushed up the labour costs. The East Asian countries are being replaced by the Southeast Asian countries as centres of low labour cost. Malaysia and Thailand in particular are classified by the World Bank as *Moderately outward oriented* countries. On the other hand, the more successful economies all have relatively small agricultural sectors as compared with other less developed economies in the region (Annex 1). It is therefore yet to be seen if paths whereby the NIEs came to their economy take-off can ever be duplicated in economies which are basically agricultural in nature.

Human Resources

It is noticeable that in the region, there is a general emphasis on human resources. Such an emphasis had existed long before the human capital theories ever came into being. It is perhaps attributable to the Confucian and Indian heritages in their broadest sense, which place high values on education and scholing. As is observed by the Asian Development Bank:

> Because Asia has developed these values over a long period of time, their understanding is essential to an analysis of human resource development in the region. These social values differ substantially among Asian countries, but are as important as formal and non-formal education in the development of attitudes toward work, saving and investment. (ADB, 1989:159)

Such values may have contributed to much of the progress in many of the Asian countries. The Asian Development Bank perceives (ADB, 1989:153):

> An examination of the postwar economic records of the countries classified as newly industrializing economies (NIEs) and the more advanced Southeast Asian countries reveals that human capital formation has been a crucial underlying factor in these countries' growth. Examination also shows that education and skills became increasingly critical as these countries approached industrial maturity. ... Indeed, what spells the difference between good and poor economic performance is the manner in which human and physical capital and technology are organized. ... Additionally, significant progress in the task of reducing poverty can be made by paying attention to human resource development and utilization, as was the case with the more successful Asian economies.

In the following, we shall discuss the general aspects of human resources.

Population

Table 2 shows the population situations in the refion. The figures in Table 2 is a summary of the data available from 26 countries and territories in the region. Hence, the population in the region will almost double in the four decades from 1960 to 2000. The population in the region is is more than half of the world population.

Table 2: Population in Asia and the Pacific 1960-2000 (in millions)

	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000
Total population	1,638	2,060	2,526	2,992	3,435
0-14 years old	645	826	944	987	985
Adults (15 years and over)	993	1,234	1,582	2,005	2,450
Primary school-age children	254	308	350	365	362

[Source UNESCO/PROAP, 1989:2.]

Asia proper is the most populous continent in the world, and population is ever on the policy agenda of most countries in the region. It contains the population giants such as China (1.1 bilion) and India (0.8 billion), as well as smaller yet densely populated countries such as Indonesia (0.17 billion) and Japan (0.12 billion). The most densely populated being Hong Kong (5,600 per sq km) (World Bank, 1989:164). Nevertheless, there are also countries such as Australia and New Zealand, and many of the smaller Pacific countries where sparse population is one of the characteristics. Annex 2 displays the population characteristics by country of the region.

There is a general decline of population growth rate in the NIEs. The figure from 1980 to 1985 was 1.6%. In East Asia, a negative growth rate is likely to emerge. In Southeast Asia the growth rate declines slowly (2.1% in 1980-1985). That in South Asia remains high (2.3%). Apart from the East Asia countries, there is a general threat of the absolute increase in population, which raises problems of farmland, nutrition and employment. On the contrary, in East Asia, there is in recent years the problem of labour shortage, very much because of the increasing participation in schools. Overall, as the Asian Development Bank has observed:

> Nevertheless, the population problem in the region will continue and almost all countries will experience large absolute population increases in the coming decade. (ADB, 1988:7)

The overall school age children (0-14) will peak in 1990. This may be viewed as a course of relief in the 1990s in terms of education expansion and investment. However, according to UN projections, over 40% of the population in Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Iran, Nepal, Lao, Pakistan and Pupua New Guinea will be under 14 during the 1990s. During the same period, about one-third of the population in Bhutan, Fiji, Indonesia, India, Malaysia, Myanmar, the Philippines, Thailand and Viet Nam will be under 14. The educational burden is foreseeable. In the developed countries, such as Japan, Australia and New Zealand, only 20% of the population will be under 14 (UNESCO/PROAP, 1989:3). Hence, although the average situation is encouraging, there is great disparity and the less developed are in less favourable situations.

The forecast growth of the adult population, on the other hand, gives rise to concern for adult literacy and the demand for significant continuous education programmes.

Labour and employment

In general, deceleration of population growth has close relations with the transition from agricultural to industrial economy. The transition usually brings along with it rising incomes and larger family expanditures in education. Largely speaking, in East Asia, the agricultural component of the labour force has declined to much less than one-half of the total labour force; in Southeast Asia, around one-half and in South Asia, about two thirds (Annex 3).

Japan and the NIEs in the region are also those with full or nearly full employment in the past two decades, although more recently there are signs of significant graduate unemployment in the Republic of Korea (Kim and Ihm, 1988). Among the Southeast Asian countries, Thailand stands the

best prospects for full employment, although Malaysia came near to full employment at one time in 1984 (ADB, 1989:156).

All the other countries seem to suffer from unemployment in one way or another, with very different causes. In Australia and New Zealand, the causes of unemployment are very similar to those in Western Europe where modern technology has internally reduced job opportunities and internationally favoured the NIEs, which possess a more flexible work force, in competition. In the less developed countries, unemployment is attributable to the usual causes in the developing world: not enough jobs in the modern sector, economic austerity, over-production of graduates and trained workers, and so forth.

In recent years, employment situations have been complicated by the international migration of workers - Philippino workers in Southeast Asia and the Middle East, Malaysian workers in Singapore, and Indonesian workers in Malaysia - to replace the local low-income groups. There is also the other phenomenon of Indian intellectuals working in Nepal, for example.

Underemployment is substantial in most of the developing countries in the region, very much because of the seasonal characteristics of the agricultural activities under inadequate irrigation facilities.

The education composition of the labour force in the developing countries in the region is high if compared with the rest of the developoing world. Table 3 is extracted from Psacharopoulos and Arriagada (1986) who demonstrate the education composition of the labour force in Asia and the Pacific. Although the figures refer to the early 1980s, recent figures should present stronger evidences of the same trend.

Table 3: Education composition of labour force (%)

Country/Year	Percentage of Labor Force With						Mean Years of Schooling
	No Education	Primary Schooling		Secondary Schooling		Higher Education	
		Incomplete	Complete	Incomplete	Complete		
Newly Industrializing Economies							
Hong Kong							
1981	7.6	17.6	19.1	21.3	26.2	8.1	8.8
Korea, Republic of							
1969	44.9	9.1	30.2	7.3	6.1	2.4	3.9
1980	14.8	1.1	33.2	18.5	23.4	9.1	8.0
Singapore							
1974	40.3	4.9	21.9	16.0	8.3	8.5	5.3
1980	21.9	3.0	46.4	18.4	6.3	4.0	6.0
Taipei, China							
1980	9.3	4.5	30.2	18.9	24.3	12.7	8.6
1983	8.9	5.1	32.7	17.7	24	11.5	8.4
Southeast Asia							
Indonesia							
1978	31.6	23.1	35.7	5.3	3.8	0.5	3.9
1980	26.1	18.9	33.4	11.4	8.9	1.2	4.9
Malaysia							
1967	27.0	1.7	55.7	9.2	4.6	1.8	5.0
1980	17.9	17.1	23.4	22.9	16.1	2.6	6.5
Philippines							
1980	7.8	21.3	27.4	15.1	12.7	15.7	7.0
Thailand							
1960	37.4	55.6	1.1	3.5	2.0	0.4	3.3
1980	10.1	64.2	7.0	11.2	4.1	3.4	4.6
South Asia							
Afghanistan							
1979	72.0	6.1	9.4	5.6	7.0	0.0	2.1
Bangladesh							
1981	62.4	15.9	4.1	10.7	5.5	1.5	2.4
India							
1961	89.9	5.2	2.1	1.9	0.3	0.6	0.5
1981	66.6	14.5	6.9	4.9	3.9	3.2	1.9
Pakistan							
1975	75.8	11.2	7.7	3.7	0.6	1.0	1.2
1981	65.9	7.4	5.2	16.4	2.4	2.7	2.5
Sri Lanka							
1963	22.2	27.9	41.9	2.7	3.2	2.1	5.3
1981	8.5	12.7	35.9	38.3	2.8	1.8	7.5
China, People's Rep. of							
1982	28.3	13.1	21.3	25.8	10.7	0.9	4.5

[Source: Psacharopoulos & Arriagada, 1986, reproduced from ADB, 1989:160.]

Nutrition and Health

In 1986, the FAO estimated that there are 200-300 million in the region who are undernourished. The full-employment requirements per capita for Asians were estimated as 2,600 calories. On this basis, most of the Southeast and South Asian countries are not consuming enough. The issue in Southeast Asian countries is one of malnutrition. The problem with South Asia is one of inadequate intake (only 1,700-1,900 calories daily). This underlies the high infant mortality rate and low life expectancies, particularly in Bangladesh, Nepal and Pakistan (ADB, 1989:165).

Health situations can be typified by the access to safe water. In South Asia, less than one third of the population have access to safe water; compared with two thirds in Southeast Asia, three quarters in South Pacific and 84% in East Asia (Ibid.).

The provision of medical and health care is still a problem in many of the South Asian countries. The situation is very much improved in the last decades in Southeast Asian countries. However, remarkable progress has been acheived in extending life expectancy and reducing infant mortality rate (Annex 4).

Income distribution

Income distribution is intertwined with human resources development. If we refer to the quintile inequality index (QI), Asia as a whole has the lowest inequality among the developing regions. Within the region, East Asia has the lowest QI, and Southeast Asia highest, although overall the QI is still higher than the Western industrialized countries (See Oshima, 1987).

Reduction of inequality and poverty in Asia is often achieved through land reform and the creation of opportunities for off-farm employment.

This has been the case in both planned and market economies. In particular, the recent economic growth in China is very much attributable to the creation of industrial activities in rural areas, and commercial, manufacturing or constrcution jobs for farmers in urban areas.

Reduction of poverty have been remarkable in East Asia and rapid in Southeast Asian countries. It is comparatively slow in South Asia where slow economic growth and rapid population growth have made alleviation of poverty less successful.

Education: Overview

The general economic progress has far reaching consequences on the development of education. On the one hand, better economic conditions and changes in economic patterns have given rise to new demands for education, both in manpower requirements and in social demand terms. On the other hand, governments have found themselves in a better financial situation to launch expansion in education. Such over-sweeping remarks may not apply to each and every country in the region; they nevertheless represent the situation in many countries.

Education Expenditures

Annex 5 shows the public education expenditures by countries in the region. The industrialized countries, Australia, Japan and New Zealand, spend 5-7% of their GNP on eudcation. Their pattern of expenditure is very similar to other developed countries elsewhere and have been stable in the years passed. The NIEs, with the exception of Hong Kong, have raised their educational expenditures from less than 3% to above 4.5% of their GNPs. Other countries, mainly developing countries, maintain at a level of 2-3%. The rather extraordinarily low figure for the Philipinnes indicates the high proportion of private education, rather than a low investment.

A comparison of education expenditures over the years 1965 to 1986, and with other parts of the world, is shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Education Expenditures: comparison

	Total as % of GNP				Per capita Ed Exp. (US$)			
	1965	1975	1985	1986	1965	1975	1985	1986
World	4.9	5.5	5.6	5.5	38	84	144	165
Developed countries	5.1	6.0	6.0	5.8	87	270	508	595
Developing countries	3.0	3.6	4.1	4.0	5	14	27	27
Asia (excl. Arab states)	3.5	4.2	4.3	4.4	7	19	39	52
Oceania	3.7	6.0	5.5	5.6	63	329	426	456

[Source: Unesco Statistics Yearbook, 1978, 1988.]

The public education expenditures as percentage of total public expenditures, on the other hand, varies tremendously. They do not show a generalizable pattern, and in fact give rise to various interpretations according to varying circumstances.

As is observed by the UNESCO/PROAP,

> it is evident that there exist in the developing countries of the region serious gaps between the enormous needs for the advancement of education and the resources available to undertake such an advancement. (1989:5)

The developing countries in the region have become the major clients of the international funding agencies, which all pay attention to primary education, with different policy orientations. The World Bank has a policy of stressing the high rate of return for primary education. The Asian Development Bank has newly established its education sector and has placed new emphasis on primary and non-formal education as a means to alleviate poverty. UNDP has been assisting in the improvement of planning and

management of primary education and literary programmes. UNICEF has also become instrumental in many of the programmes on illiteracy and the disadvantaged. Bilateral aids are also active in the region (Ibid.:5-6).

Literacy

Literacy rate in the region approaches 70% by 1990 (See Table 4).

Table 5: Literary in Asia and Pacific

	Literacy Ratio	Adult Litarates	Adult Illiterates
1960	39.6 %	393 million	600 milion
1970	50.2	781*	614
1980	60.4	953	628
1990	68.7	1,377	628
2000	77.1	1,888	562

[Source: Unesco/PROAP, 1989:6; (Chu, 1988).]*

This compares favourably with other regions, bearing in mind that most countries in the region belong to the developing world. Three points worth mentioning (Unesco/PROAP, 1989:9; Chu, 1988).

First, much effort has been spent to eradicate adult illiteracy. The achievement is remarkable, if the numbers of literates and the literacy ratios are compared across years.

Second, despite the improvement in relative terms, the absolute number of adult illiterates remain almost stagnant. By and large, there will be around 600 million adult illiterates in the region.

Third, there is considerable disparity in terms of literacy situations and prospects in the region. If we refer to Annex 6, we can group countries in the region as is in Table 6:

Table 6: Estimated literacy situations at 1990 by country grouping

Achieving 50% or less	Achieving 70% +	Achieving 80% +	Achieving 90% +	Around 100% but expecting relapse
Afghanistan	China	Fiji	Hong Kong	Australia
Bangladesh	Turkey	Indonesia	Korea, R. of	Japan
Bhutan		Malaysia	Mongolia	New Zealand
India		Myanmar	Philippines	
Nepal			Singapore	
Pakistan			Sri Lanka	
Papua New Guinea			Thailand	
			Viet Nam	

[Source: Unesco/PROAP, 1989:8.]

In general, South Asia, with the exception of Sri Lanka, has rather low literacy rates, otherwise most countries should have achieved a literacy rate of over 70%. Most of the countries in East and Southeast Asia should have achieved near full literacy in the 1990s. Australia, Japan and New Zealand, formerly regarded as having attained full literacy, has faced similar problems as other industrialized countries in drop-out, low-achievements and are facing relapse into functional illiteracy.

China, being a vast country, has exhibited great regional disparity where the Eastern part of the country has achieved near full-literacy, whereas the Western part, particularly in ethnic minority areas, literacy rates are still low.

It is quite obvious that the low literacy rate in South Asia is greatly due to the fast growing population, despite the tremendous efforts paid by national governments to eradicate literacy.

There is also gender disparity in the literacy situations. In the years from 1970 through 1985, the female adult illiterates in the region are in the order of 400 million, over 65% of the total adult illiterates.

Enrolment

The enrolment ratios at different levels, by countries, are shown in Annex 7. The following table (Table 7) indicates the growth of gross enrolment ratio at different levels of the education system, in comparison with other parts of the world.

Table 7: Gross enrolment ratios (%), 1960 and mid-1980s

	Primary		Secondary		Tertiary	
	1960	1986	1960	1986	1960	1986
World	80.7	99.9	27.5	47.0	5.2	12.8
Developed countries	101.5	103.0	62.1	90.2	13.3	33.1
Developing countries	72.8	99.2	15.1	38.5	2.0	7.2
Asia (excl. Arab)	80.8	104.4	20.7	40.2	2.5	7.1
Oceania	101.6	106.8	53.1	79.2	9.9	25.1

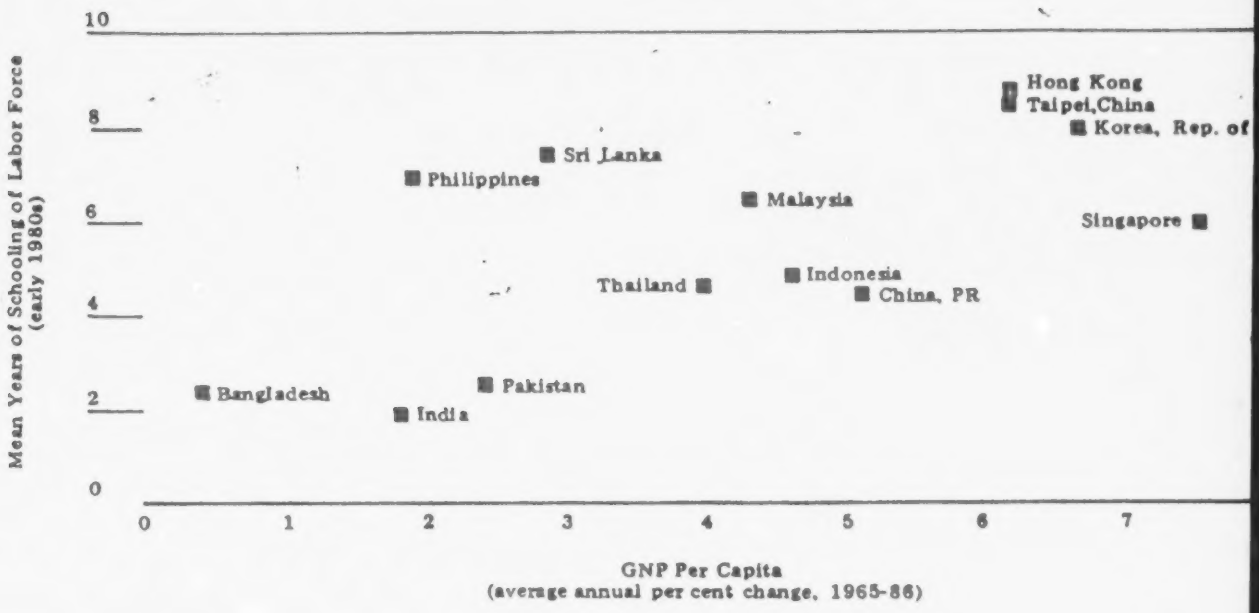
[Source: Unesco Statistical Yearbook, 1988: Table 2.10.]

The growth of enrolment exceeded growth in population. This indicates the considerable effort the countries have made to expand education.

Basic Education. *In most of the countries in the region, by basic education* is meant primary schooling. Only in a few countries (the industrialised and some of the NIEs) does it mean 9-year compulsory education.. Annex 8 shows the national systems of formal education.

The Asian Development Bank produces Figure 2, based on World Bank data, to demonstrate that in the region, GNP per capita is positively correlated with the mean years of schooling in the labour force.

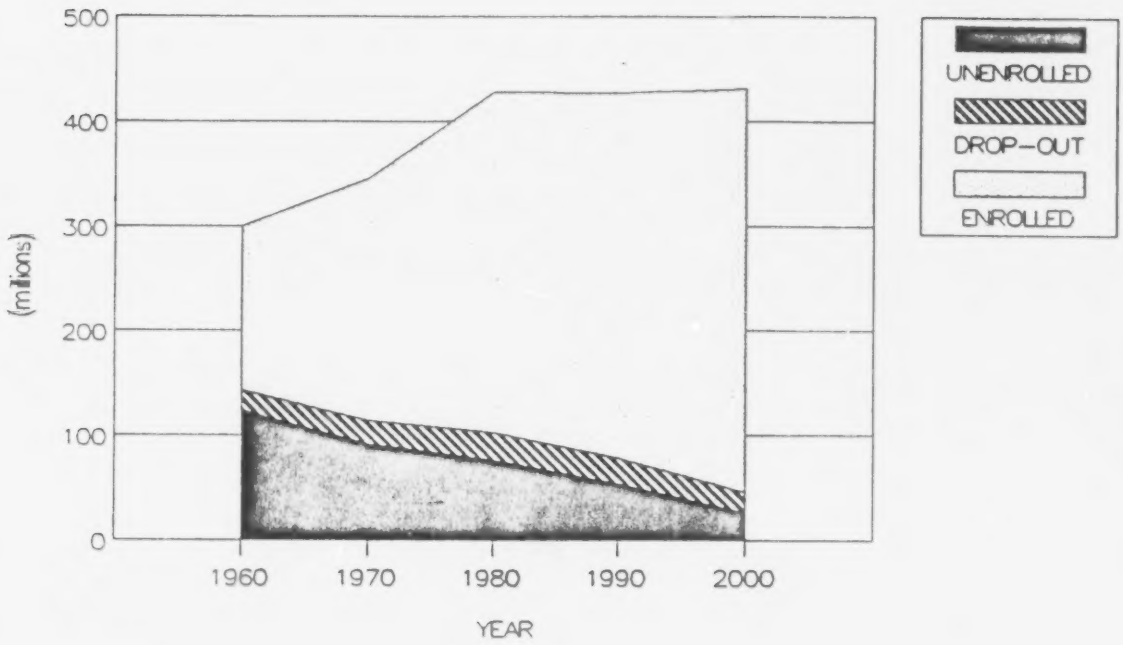
Figure 2: Schooling and Economic Performance



[Source: ADB, 1989:161.]

As is displayed in Annex 9, there is remarkable difference in enrolment ratios in the region. Apart from the industrialized countries and the NIEs, most countries are still struggling to achieve universal primary education (UPE). China is perhaps an exception, who demonstartes a high attendance ratio which is over 97% in primary education. However, most of the countries have demonstrated remarkable progress in the past two decades in increasing their primary enrolments. In Figure 3 (which is a reproduction from Unesco/PROAP, 1989), one can see the achievements of the region in improving primary enrolment, although the unenrolled still remain a large number, 54 million in 1989 and estimated to be 26 million by the end of the century.

Figure 3: Primary Education 1960-2000:
Enrolment, Unenrolled and Dropouts



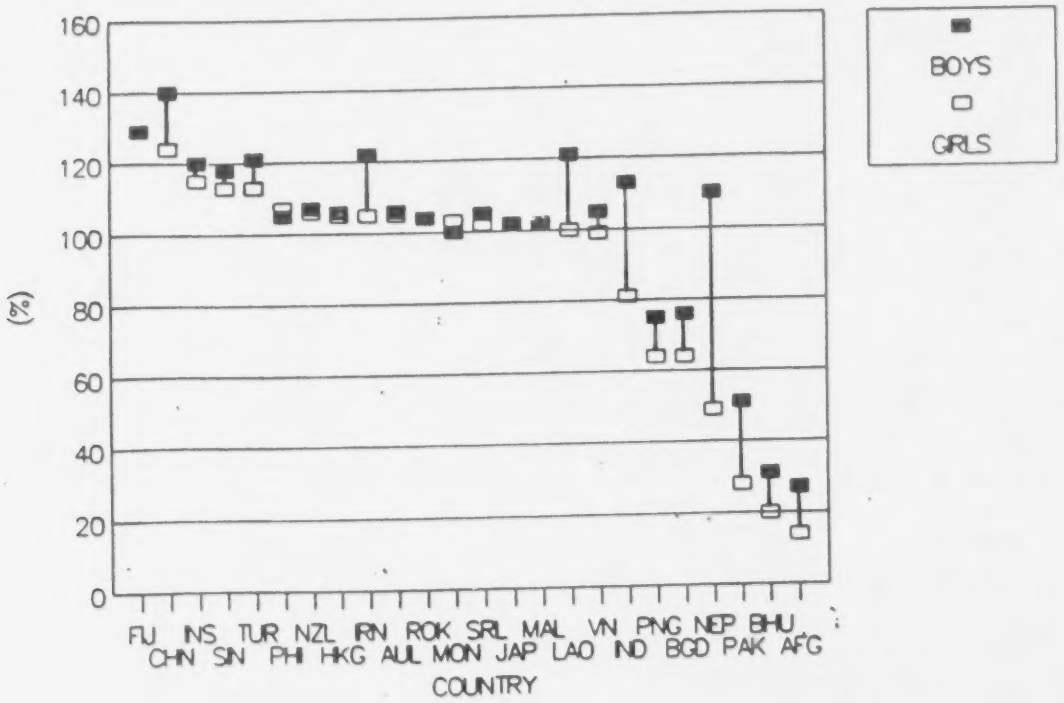
[Source: Unesco/PROAP, 1989:13.]

In the process of universalizing basic education, drop-out is a major issue. As can be seen in Annex 10, most of the industrialized or newly industrialized countries have dramatic drops in the number of drop-outs in the two decades since 1960. The less developed countries have, on the contrary, a general increase in the number of drop-outs. The reasons for drop-outs are multifold. Apart from pedadogical reasons of low learning achievement and lack of attractive curricula and teaching strategies, economic incentive remains the major reason.

China presents a typical example of the reasons for drop-outs. In this country of great economic disparity, drop-outs are serious in both in the most backward areas where formal education is seen as irrelevant to the economic lives of the community, and in the prospering rural villages, where commercial or industrial activities rely very much on teenagers and formal schooling incurs high opportunity costs.

As is the case for illiteracy, there is also significant gender disparity in school drop-outs where girls' major role is in housework. Even if financial situations allow, parents will send boys to schools first. Figure 4 is a reproduction from Unesco/PROAP (1989:15), indicating gender disparity in primary enrolment among countries in the region.

Figure 4: Primary enrolment by sexes, 1988



[Source: Unesco/RPOAP, 1989:15.]

Annex 10 displays the enrolment ratios in secondary education in the region. The disparity is again great. Apparently, secondary enrolment is a reflection of the economic strength of the country. Sri Lanka and China can again be seen as exceptions.

Technical/vocational education. The low enrolment at secondary level in developing countries in the region are always seen as attributable to the irrelevance of the curriculum. Technical education and vocational training are hence viewed as a rescue. In almost all reforms in the region during the decades passed, there were inevitably inclusion of a technical or vocational component. Technical and vocational education is also seen as a way to produce the needed manpower and will bring benefits to the economy. A review of the statistics shows that there is little progress in this respect (Table 8). In agreement with the international scene, the developing countries in the region saw a decline of the technical/ vocational component, contrasting an increase of the technical/vocational component in the developed countries. A contrary to expectations.

Table 8: Percentage Enrolment of Technical/Vocational Secondary Education

	1970	1980	1986
World	13.8	13.9	13.2
Developed countries	16.8	19.6	20.6
Developing countries	10.4	9.9	9.4
Asia (Excl. Arab states)	8.0	7.4	6.7
Oceania	0.7	1.3	1.5

[Source: Unesco Statistics Yearbook, 1988: Table 2.9.]

In many of the developing countries, real development in technical/ vocation education is dependent upon reforms in the employment policies and changes in the labour system. There are evidences that the latter is

instrumental in boosting enrolment in the former. This is certainly the case in China, where technical/vocational education prospers when individuals are allowed to operate their own enterprises and training needs became visible.

Higher education. It is noticeable that in the region, apart from industrialized countries which possess sophisticated systems of higher education, a few of the less developed countries also operate a highly developed system of tertiary education. The Philippines and Thailand are outstanding in their higher education enrolment, relative to countries of comparable economic strength. India and China both possess comprehensive networks of universities, although the latter has rather low enrolments.

The NIEs and advanced Southeast Asian countries have remarkable enrolments, but apart from the Republic of Korea, most of them rely heavily on overseas facilities. Hong Kong, Singapore and Malaysia are champions of overseas students contributors in the most popular host countries (Table 9).

Table 9: Overseas students in major countries

	Australia (1985)	Canada (1986)	U.K. (1984)	U.S. (1986)	France	FRG	Japan
China	177	1,499	383	40,322	1,499	1,117	6,988
Hong Kong	1,687	6,729	5,756	9,717	46	-	163
India	197	837	835	16,198	240	585	95
Indonesia	1,083	311	257	8,155	327	2,260	344
Malaysia	7,652	1,610	4,460	19,096	145	43	678
Singapore	895	1,141	1,294	3,998	25	49	88

[Source: Unesco Statistics Yearbook, 1988: Table 3.12.]

Much effort is also spent in developing **adult education** in the region. Apart from literacy courses, adult education prospers in the training of professionals or semi-professional a spare-time studies, particularly in the industrialized economies and in the NIEs. There is also the effort to develop **distance learning.** Distance learning institutions at secondary and tertiary levels have existed in Australia and New Zealand in various forms, very much as a means to overcome difficulties caused by the sparse population. In the 1980s, quite a number of **open universities** have emerged in the region. There are now two open universities in Thailand, and each in India, Pakistan, Indonesia, Sri Lanka and Hong Kong (Salim, 1987). The open universities have changed the access to higher education, presented new challenges to curriculum design and teaching strategies, and has changed the employment situations in terms of qualification and certification. China has also developed its own elaborate system of distance learning with a variety of modes: television, radio and correspondence. Recently, a satellite broadcasting system is also set up for teacher training in remote areas.

ISSUES IN EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT AND ADMINISTRATION

This secion will deal with educational management issues at macro and meso levels. Management at microscopic level will only be touched upon because most of the institutional management issues are culture specific.

Management Issues in Educational Reforms

Reform has become the key word in educational development in many of the countries in the region. While some countries have launched comprehensive reforms in the entire education system, others have aimed at special yet crucial areas.

Comprehensive reforms

Asia has seen comprehensive reforms in education in many of its most typical countries. Below, we shall introduce such reforms in Bangladesh, China, India, Japan and the Republic of Korea. We shall introduce only the main themes of these reforms and discuss the details where appropriate.

Bangladesh. A Policy Paper was published by the Ministry of Education in 1988. The basic aims of the reform is to widen access and improve the quality of education. The objectives include (Chowdhury, 1989):

(a) to enrol 70% of the primary age group by 1990 and to achieve UPE by the end of the century;

(b) to upgrade and strengthen science, technical and vocational education at secondary and post-secondary levels;

(c) to expand and improve in-service training of teachers at all levels and to reform the suytem of teacher recruitment;

(d) to achieve better equality between rural and urban educational facilities as well as opportunities between male and female;

(e) to reduce adult illiteracy; and

(f) to improve the internal efficiency of the education system through better management and planning.

There is clear indication that the reform, as part of the national Five-year Plan, expects much from education to achieve the nation's development goals.

China. China launched a comprehensive reform in education in 1985. In a published document *Reform of China's Education Structure*, the national Government called for reforms at three levels (*Decisions*, 1985):

(a) At basic education level, to institute compulsory 9-year education in three phases respectively for three regions of varying economic status in the nation.

(b) At post-compulsory level, to increase the proportion of technical/vocational education to 50% of the total upper secondary enrolment (of ages 15+ or 16+).

(c) To increase the degree of academic and administrative autonomy among institutes of higher education.

(d) To reform the administrative and management systems in education, so as to achieve better co-ordination and higher efficiency.

The net effect of the reform is one of decentralization, both in terms of diversification of acheivement goals and of mobilization of community resources.

India. A document entitled *Challenge of education - a policy perspective* was published by the Government of India in 1986. The document, while advocating qualitative improvement of education at all levels, possesses a number of salient features (de Rebello, 1989):

(a) To achieve a unified educational structure (10+2+3) in all the sub-national political units.

(b) To arrive at a National Curricular Framework and Core Curriculum

(c) To achieve 8 years universal education.

(d) To reduce regional and sexual inequality by improving access to education.

(e) To improve inter-regional mobility in higher education and technical education.

(f) To establish a national network for educational research and development.

(g) To improve the provision and accountability of resources.

(h) To improve training of all kinds of educational personnel.

(i) To improve the central-local partnership in the managenent of education.

Japan. A National Council in Educational Reform was estalbished in 1984 to advise the Prime Minister. The Council submitted four successive reports before the end of its term in 1989 (Kitamura, 1989). In sum, the Council recommended reforms in six areas:

(a) Development of a framework for life-long education.

(b) Enrichment and reform of elementary and secondary education.

(c) Diversification and reform of institutions in hihger education.

(d) Reform towards internationalization.

(e) Reform to cope with the information age.

(f) Reform of administration and finance in education.

The entire orientation of the reform is to *deregulate* the education system, that is, to move away from the traditional, rigid, excessively competitive education system towards one which favours individuality, creativity, flexibility, and internationalization.

Republic of Korea. In 1985, a reform in education was initiated by the Presidential Commission for Educational Reform. Out of the 42 long-

and short-term reforms, the following tasks could be high-lighted:

(a) Restructuring the education system from 6-3-3-4 to 5-3-3-4.

(b) Delegating the authority of university entrance to individual institutions.

(c) Improvement of educational facilities and environments.

(d) Legislation to attracted quality teachers.

(e) Decentralize curriculum decisions and improve teaching methods.

(f) Emphasis on science and technology education.

(g) Pursuit of excellence in higher education.

(h) Institutionalizing life-long education.

(i) Increasing autonomy of schools and local administration.

(j) Introducing education tax and attracting private contribution to education.

Similar to the Japanese reform, the Korean reform also aims at development of creativity and diversity, as a contrast to the conservative traditioons.

It is clear from the above outlines that in all the countries mentioned, there has been a re-think of education. There have been implicitly re-definition of the educational goals and explicitly re-structuring of the educational system. All these reforms have apparently moved away from mere expansions and quantitative considerations, and have tried to move from policies at systems level to policies that would facilitate improvement of quality in schools. There are therefore the convering trend to pay attention to training of personnel, flexibility in curriculum, reduction of inequality, and so forth. All these have inevitably led to reforms in management of the education system.

In terms of management, despite the varying cultural, economic and

political contexts, all the five countries intend to move towards a more flexible system and more efficient management. The latter usually entails effective co-ordination on the one hand, but decentralization and de-concentration of funding and management on the other.

Reforms in other countries, occurred earlier or less comprehensive in nature, more or less align themselves with such directions.

In *Thailand*, there are moves to reform the educational administrative structure (Unesco/PROAP, 1989a:40).

In the Philippines, the Mid-Term Plan (1987-92) has included in its objectives "the strengthening and improvement of the system of educational planning and management (Ibid.).

The Sociolist Republic of Viet Nam, with its reform in 1979, resulted in an improvement of the management office and an intensified micro-planning capacity (Ibid).

The Lao People's Democratic Republic, in its 1986 reform, included educational investment, educational effifiency and management as essential issues (Ibid).

In Indonesia, the recent reforms have placed their emphasis on the training of teacher and school heads as autonomous professionals in the management of grass-root schools (Ibid.).

Other on-going reforms or efforts in education all entail improvement of the management system, before the reforms or efforts yield fruit. This will be discussed in the following section.

Governance of Education

Apart from Western communities such as Australia and New Zealand, education in most of the Asian countries are traditionaly highly centralized. However, in recent years, reforms and policies have commonly

included decentralization, intersectoral co-ordination, deconcentration and sometimes privitization as essential aspects.

Decentralization

Decentralization and deconcentration of educational management have been well discussed in the international literature, but they had long been realities only in the most advanced and more Westernized countries in the region. In the 1980s, the largest countries, China and India, which had presumably suffered most from centralization, have taken bold steps in decentralization.

In China, decentralization in education followed similar reforms in the financial system. It is made possible not only because of the devolution of the financial power, but also that the more flexible economy has allowed local communities to establish its own pool of resources.

What is in force is a concept of "three-level management". While the central government provides the basic recurrent expenditures, upper secondary schools are otherwise financed and managed by county governments. Likewise, junior secondary schools are financed and managed by township governments, which in turn may collect educational levy on top of normal taxes. Primary schools are endeavours of the Villigers Committees which are established by election. In all cases non-recurrent expenditures are supported by local resources. The government may pay a small amount as incentive for local contribution in capital constructions. Such an induction measure is often known as "fishing".

In all cases, local governments have replaced higher-level educational authorities to take care of the educational budget.

This policy measure has far-reaching implications in the ownership of schools, the community-teacher relations, the control of education quality and hence the whole concept of school management (Cheng, 1987). The

decentralization has also allowed different localities to set their own time-tables for accomplishing 9-year compulsory education. Some localities have even chosen to modify the target goal to 6-year or 4-year compulsory schooling, so as to match the economic development of the localities.

In India, the management of primary schools have been transferred to the District Councils who are responsible for overall planning and administration of the rural district. The district Council is composed of the chairmen of the village cluster representatives (elected), and chairmen of four cooperative societies, pertaining respectively to credit, marketing, industry and education/training. The District Council runs seven subcommittees, one of which is in charge of education. The education subcommittee is responsible for establishment, management, maintenance, administrative inspection and supervision of primary schools, including grants to aided schools, but it is not responsible for curricular matters (Mellor, 1987:33).

Decentralization has the manifest advantage of giving the schools and local communities more autonomy, creating a sense of popular ownership among the community, making schools more adaptable to local needs and local environments, and mobilizing local recources.

Alongisde the advantages is the increase in regional disparity. In China, as an example, decentralization has given wealthier localities the liberty to improve school facilities and teachers' incomes, but has left the economically less developed localities with difficulties more severe than before. In the less developed regions, there is very little revenue for manipulation by the local authority; schools hence operate in mere subsistance conditions. Decentralization has also left the higher-level authority with little financial capacity to play an equalization role.

In India, as another example, decentralization has solicited more ready contribution from the community. The local community has become more vigilant about the well-being of the local school. However, decentralization has also rendered schools vulnerable to local political interference.

Most other countries have included decentralization in their national policies. In paricular, the Japanese and Korean reforms have paid special attention to the issue.

In the Korean reform, there is a recommendation to strategically transform the provincial Board of Education from an executive body to a decision-making body, and to re-allocate the functions between central and local educational authorities. Local Boards of Education will then become such decision-making bodies that they are independent of municipal and provincial governments (Presidential Commission, 1987:158).

The Korean decentralization of administration is accompanied by a localization of educational finance (Presidential Commission, 1987:210-224) which involves the creation of a local educational tax, and the creation of an education account in the local government budget. Measures are also taken to induce private donations from the community.

In the Japan reform document, it is recommended that

> While all local (prefecture and municipal) governments should satisfy minimum national standards for education as a basic prerequisite, they should also be allowed, on the basis of their own independent decisions and responsibility, to develop diverse systems and mechanisms in accordance with the actual circumstances in each locality. (Fourth Report, 1987:67)

Emphasis is again placed on the autonomy of local education authorities, known as the principle of "deregulation" in the Japanese reform.

Deconcentration

By deconcentration here is meant to diffuse the management of education into more hands; to seek partnership in the governance and

finance of education. While decentralization can be seen as a partnership between the central government and local communities, deconcentration is partnership between the government and different sectors of the economy. Deconcentration occurs more in vocational education, higher education and adult education.

Vocationalization of education is one of the prevalent themes in the region. In the original sense, vocationalization of education should mean introduction of vocational elements into the formal cirriculum. Recent use of the term may also mean the expansion of the vocational component in the education system.

In both cases, experience in many countries has revealed that involvement of employers in the industrial and serivce sectors are inevitable.

Deconcentration occurs in China in terms of sharing of educational finance among different sectors of the economy. In technical/vocational education at upper secondary level, there is a policy where employers are invited to launch joint-venture programmes with vocational schools. The employer shares the decision making in curriculum and selection of graduates. The employer also provides technical support where necessary, in terms of trainers in practical skills as well as practicum facilities. The education authority, on the other hand, provides basic school facilities as well as teaching of the academic and theoretical subjects. At tertiary level, there is a prevailing model of *commissioned training* in which enterprises pay and commission higher education institutions to train the required personnel.

In Hong Kong and Singapore, co-operation between employers and trainers is institutionalized in special policy-advisory bodies (Vocational Training Council in Hong Kong and Vocational and Industrial

Training Board in Singapore), which comprise Training Boards where employers, trainers, educators, administrators and union representatives sit together to make training policies in particular occupations.

In fact Unesco/PROAP has identified the involvement of the industrial sector as one of the categories commonly occurring in national policies of technical/vocational education: "Involving industry and the private sector in the planning of technical and vocational education, teaching and course development (found in policy papers of Bangladesh, Indonesia, Republic of Korea, the Philippines and Thailand)" (UNESCO/RPOAP, 1988:100).

Deconcentration has enabled schools and universities to create alternative channels of finance, hence they are virtually less dependent upon the government. Deconcentration has also made training institutions and universities more responsive to manpower needs of the economic sectors. These advantages are evident in China where the deconcentration has taken place since the early 1980s, and are likely to be the case in other countries which have just started the practice.

However, the responsiveness to manpower requirements may also result in a narrow vision of educational goals and may victimized areas which are not directly manpower-related. In China, for example, disciplines such as Foreign Language, Accounting and Statistics in both vocational schools and universities have attracted more resources than other areas of study. Philosophy, History and even the Pure Sciences, on the other hand, hardly attract any client for commissioned training.

The participation of non-education sectors in educational finance may also render education vulnerable to fluctuations in the economy. China has also witnessed such vulnerability when recession in the enterprises has created new financial crisis for education.

Diversification of Financing Sources

As can be seen in the above description, diversification of financing sources has become an underlying policy in almost all the reforms.

As is seen, the Chinese reform in education involves new sources of finance firstly as local contributions, in terms of education levy and private donations, and secondly as contribution from employers in terms of joint-venture programmes and commissioned training. In some cases, the employers may also be asked to pay a sum to the training institution in return for the recruitment of a graduate. The education levy is collected in the form of 1-2% tax surcharges on top of production tax, value added tax and business tax. New measures have just started to a salary tax of 1-3% specifically for education (Cheng, 1989).

In India, there are offorts to devolve the financing of education (Tilak, 1989) through interactions between the centre and the states, as determined by the Planning Commission an the Finance Commission. The Finance Commission takes care of the *nonplan* expenditures which are used for maintenance of the education system. Such expenditures are *statutory* in the sense that funds are transferred from centre to the states by constitution. The Planning Commission takes care of the *plan* expenditures which are *discretionary*, meaning that they are contingent on the five-year plans of developing the education system. Although the two Commmission may have different criteria for transferance of funds to the states, and there are difficulties in consistency, their very existence has helped establish the notion of diffusing the funding of education into more hands.

The Korean reform has placed heavy emphasis on the diversification of financial sources. It has laid out in the reform document detailed recommendations on the creation of an education tax, the creation of an education bond, and other measures to induce private donations. In the

Korean reform, it was stipulated that "Encouragement should be given to participation of the private sector in education development as a means to pump capital from the private sector into education" (Presidential Commission, 1987:214).

Any partnership in the financing of education inevitably involves new actors in the decision-making of education policies. Involvement of the industrial and private sector on the one hand releases the schools from bureaucratic controls of the government, but on the other hand places the schools under market force which may or may not agree with sound professional development of education.

Privitization

For varying reasons, privitization of schools and other educational institutions has become a prevalent trend in many countries in the region.

On the one hand, there is the Japan-Korean pattern which, as part of the deregulation of education, place much emphasis on private schools. On the other hand, following the tide in England, many commonwealth countries in the region have been tempted to improve their school system with some form of privitization, as a means to overcome uniformity and mediocrity.

The Japanese reform pays special attention to include "private education enterprise" as a constructive partner in national education system. It seeks to recognize and revitalize the role of the existing private schools.

> It is necessary to examine how to positively incorporate the role and responsibility of private education industries into the "transition to a lifelong learning system", and the "reorganization of the educational system for the 21st century". (Fourth Report, 1987:69)

Australia, following the recent development in England, a scheme is established to encourage government-aided schools to turn private, with government subsidies which varies inversely with the tuition fees

collected by the school.

Singapore has started an "Independent Schools Scheme" in 1988 where selected government-aided schools, recognized as with distinguished standards, are allowed to become independent. They still receive a government aid comparable to their aided counterparts, but enjoying autonomy in personnel, curriculum and other financial matters. In fact such schools receive additional generous funding from the Government for capital construction and endowments (Cheng, 1988). Such schools are allowed to charge a token tuition fee, but a subsidy scheme is also set up to guarantee that no student is deprived, on economic ground, a place in such schools. Schools join the scheme by invitation from the Ministry of Education.

The Hong Kong government has proposed a "Direct Subsidy Scheme" which is a combination of the Singaporean and the Australian models (Education Commission, 1988). The scheme, due to start in 1991, allows existing private schools, international schools and government-aided schools are allowed to enter into contract with the Government and receive a sum comparable to their government-aided counterparts. Such schools are then allowed to use the sum with great discretion in student admission, curriculum and administration. Only school with quality are allowed to join the scheme.

In Pakistan, policy is under review with the objective of reverting the trend of nationalizing privately managed educational institutions and permitting private enterprises to open new private schools (MOE, 1989).

The Philippines traditionally possesses a strong private sector at all levels of the education system. The recent policies opt to further reinforce the market mechanism by (a) deregulating tuition fees, so that

quality schools may receive greater input and (b) introducing voluntary accreditation with an accompanying incentive system (Miguel, 1989). In the latter case, technical and professional panels are established to accreditate tertiary programmes in agriculture and engineering, so that those programmes which passed accreditation may receive upgrading and fiscal autonomy.

Apart from the case of the Philippines, the other measures of encouraging private enterising in education are very new developments in the region. They are not genuine privitization in its proper sense, because there are built-in mechanisms to quarantee that schools are not essentially supported by school fees, and that students from poor families are not deprived of a place. The prime objective of such privitization is to favour the emergence of excellent schools, so that they are not bound by uniform requirements which will only guarantee the minimum quality. The schemes of privitization are by their very nature controversial. They have aroused much debate in the respective communities and are received with mixed reactions. One basic point of opposition is that the privitization schemes will inevitably increase disparity between schools. This is the old debate between equity and excellence, and is up to the people in the respective communities to place their value judgement.

In adult education, partners to the government are often voluntary non-governmental agencies such as churches or charitable organizations. The situation is quite opposite to that in other sectors of education where the Government undertakes the major financial responsibility and other agents are called in as auxiliaries. In adult education, it is often difficult to specify the scale and hence target goals are vague. In these circumstances, budgetting for adult education is often loose and allocation is small. Often, adult education proprammes are started by the

NGOs as a social service. They are left to undertake the major financial responsibility and government input is often minimal. In this sense, adult education are largely *private* endeavours in the refion. The NGOs often find themselves left helpless in fighting a lone battle. Although there is no lack of policy statements in recognizing the importance of adult or continuing education. There is also no lack of mention of the merits of the NGOs and the need to assist them, but little has happened in the region so that the NGOs are substantially assisted.

Intersectoral co-ordination

There could be two senses of intersectoral co-ordination. On the one hand, management and administration of education has to face problems which are beyond the control of educational authorities, and hence non-educational sectors in the government have to come together for a coherent contribution. On the other hand, different sectors within education may need to co-operate in order to provide effective service to the community. The first case usually lead to inter-departmental or inter-ministerial co-ordinations across sectors of the government. The second may lead to cross-divisional co-operations within the education sector.

The first case is evident in the recent reforms in Japan and Republic of Korea. In both cases, incidentally, the reform was deliberated by organs which operates above all ministries. The Korean Presidential Commission for educational reform comprised 32 professionals representing education, social affairs, economy, industry, journalism and science. The National Council for Educational Reform of Japan is answerable to the Prime Minister, obviously foreseeing the necessity of going beyond the traditional educational authorities and overcoming the conventional inter-ministerial barriers.

In Lao, a National Committee for Educational Reform was established in 1987 which elaborates the policy guidelines and strategy for education development up to year 2000.

In China, as an essential organ of educational reform, a new State Education Commission was estalbished in 1985 to replace the Ministry of Education. The Commission is composed of representatives (often of Deputy Minister rank) from the topmost policy-making bodies in planning, economy, labour, personnel, finance, industry and other relevant ministerial bodies, and is headed by the First Deputy Prime Minister.

In India, inter-sectoral management occurs at local levels, where the overall planning and management of education has been transferred from district school boards to District Councils (Zillas Parishads).

In Maldives, general education policy is made by the National Educational Council which advises the President and secures inter-sectoral co-operations.

In Hong Kong, a high-power Education Commission was established in 1984 to co-ordinate policies in general education, technical education and vocational training, and higher education.

In other countries, while similar organs may not have been estalbished, the issue of inter-sectoral co-ordination, either at national or sub-national levels, are well taken into attention. In the Philippines, the formulation of the medium-term National Development Plan (1987-92), for example, is done by the National Economic Development Authority, which is an cross-ministerial national government agency. In Thailand, the National Education Commission is charged with the responsibility to conduct an overall review of the national education plan.

The second case of inter-divisional co-operation sees examples in the area of universalization of primary education (UPE). It has been

identified that UPE can be successful only if it is integrated with efforts for the Eradication of Illiterary (EOI) and Continuing Education for Development (CED). This is very much the theme being promoted in the APPEAL programme which is implemented by integration of the three (UNESCO/PROAP, 1989b).

In China, for example, literates become new illiterates because of the lack of opportunities of using their language knowledge (recognizing the Chinese characters in this particular case). Eradication of such illiteracy, mostly with adults above 40, has to be integrated with vocational and skills training which requires literacy, but which is profitable. Such an integrated planning entails inter-divisional co-operation which is unconventional in established bureaucracies.

New trends to view education as a major means of human resources development has also enabled different government and non-government agents in education, training and adult education. We shall return to this later in this paper.

Centralization in Higher Education

Quite contrary to the tide of decentralization in education administration is the move to centralize the governance of higher education. The large number of Commonwealth countries by and large had followed the British model of university governance through University Grants Committees. Membership of the University Grants Committee usually comprises mainly academics. The idea of a University Grants Committee is to hit a balance between the financial accountability laid down by the government treasury on the one hand, and the protection of academic autonomy in institutions of higher education on the other. This has been the case in India, Sri Lanka, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Hong Kong, Australia

and New Zealand. Australia and New Zealand have recently followed the British Government's move to eliminate the University Grants Committee, and the replacement (comprising mainly non-academics) will play the sole role of advising the Government, thus depriving the universities the right to argue for academic autonomy. The argument for move in Britain is to seek "value for money" in higher education, so as to improve the efficiency in the use of funds. The real implications of such a move and the effect on other similar committees are yet to be seen.

Institutional Management

As is said at the beginning of the paper, the diverse cultures in the region does not allow us to make valid generalization of the situations. General speaking, although recent literature on management in general has paid much attention to the Asian styles of management, indigenous theories of mamagement in the theory is yet to emerge, let alone indigenous theories in educational management.

However, the region is not lack of countries which are active in the international community of educational management - Australia, New Zealand, Singapore, Hong Kong and the Philippines - many of them deeply influenced by the British and North American conventions. In fact, Australia is the base for the world's only international orgainzation for educational management: Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration, of which similar councils in Singapore, Hong Kong and India are active affiliates.

Nevertheless, the conclusions for a regional conference recently held in Singapore on institutional management are highly representative. Among others, the conference concludes:

Participants strongly emphasized, however, that any such transfer of

> ideas [from one country to another] should be treated with caution and sensitivity to particular national and cultural circumstances. rather than being directly and uncritically implemented, any ideas or models would need to be adapted to local and national situations. (*Regional*, 1988.)

This is not to deny the importance of institutional managemment in educational management. For many, the assertion by the Singapore Minister of Education is to be echoed with sympathy:

> The Minister was obviously of the view that the prospect of greater quality in education rested at the level of the school. The overall system had been firmed up; the structure had been established; schools had been provided with all the necessary resources. The ingenuity of principals and teachers was necessary and the conditions had to be provided for this to emerge. A new model of school management had to be found. (*Towards*, 1987:3)

It may not be exaggerating to say that the attention to institutional management marks the degree of forward looking of the government. It is not uncommon to see government policy-makers indulged in macro- and meso-educational development, which takes care of the quantity and system of education, but can do little to genuinely improve the quality of education. The wisdom of a national government in its educational outlook is often reflected in its concern of schools and classrooms. Viewed from this angle, the granting of more autonomy to schools is essential. To this end, granting autonomy to local educational authorities, as is the case in many of the reforms mentioned above, is a very important starting point.

Before the conclusion of this chapter, it is worth mentioning that this region has witnessed the importance of political and social stability to education development. The real improvement in educational administration and management in many of the countries in the region is possible because they have enjoyed a comparatively long period of stability. It is also evident in the region that apart from economic poverty, political instability is the major reason for stagnation or delay in educational development.

ISSUES IN EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

Changing Goals of Educational Planning

The term educational planning can easily be defined in theory, but in practice, it refers to a broad area ranging from very top level policy-making in education to very detailed technical formulation of programmes for implementation. It is not an objective of this paper to define what is educational planning. It will however, attempt to display how different countries in the region practise educational planning.

Broadly speaking, there are four categories of goals for educational planning in the region: planning for manpower requirements, planning for social demand, planning for quality and planning under austerity. It may be interesting to examine how different countries in the region place the different goals.

First, it is noticeable that the highly industiralized countries in the region, namely Japan, Australia and New Zealand, do not emphasize so much on educational planning in its usual sense. Apparently, social demand is the prime goal of education development, and the national wealth is able to support such an approach.

Japan has long solved the problem of quantity. There is near 100% attendance up to senior secondary level. The enrolment ratio in higher education is around 40%, only next to the United States by international comparison and much higher than the United States in terms of male enrolment. In the recent Japanese reform, the aims of creating flexibility and respecting individuality, of internationalization and coping with information age, can all be seen as reform on quality of education (UNESCO/RPOAP, 1988:38). Japan at one time (in the 1930s) had tried to

tailor the education system to cope with youth unemployment, but was not successful (Muta, 1988). There is very sophisticated systems of manpower forecasting, but it has seldom been employed for educational planning.

In New Zealand, there is a concern for equality of opportunity, which is a common concern among developed countries. However, the meaning of equity there is "on the outcomes of education, not the access to it" (Renwick, 1986:3-110). The concern is very much due to unemployment of the educated, which started in the mid-1970s.

Long term youth unemployment is also the impetus for the Australian government to develop programmes (Participation and Equity Programmes) which would hopefully improve the path of transition from school to work (McKinnon, 1986:3-88).

In general, in the developed countreis in the region, the goals for education policies, and accordingly educational planning, are more on the output of eduaction system rather than the input.

Second, the NIEs seem to place much emphasis on the supply and demand of manpower. This is very much the case in the Republic of Korea, Hong Kong and Singapore, although each of these have seen re-orientation of their policies in the 1980s.

In the Republic of Korea, the major concern in educational planning is with the supply of skilled manpower. In his summary of an introduction of education development in Korea, Hyung concluded that

> With the increased demand for intellectuals of creative technological competence, structural change in the higher education system will be required so that it can both adjust to an imbalance or skewing in the distribution of the educated work-force and improve the quality of education. (Hyung, 1986:3-177-87)

However, in the recent education reform, there is little mention of the manpower requirements and there is apparently a move towards the Japanese orientation and pay more attention to quality issues.

Singapore is well-known for its manpower planning. The strife for excellence has become a national theme for education. This theme has motivated teachers and students to perform to one's very best. The theme also underlies the nation's education structure which adopts streaming according to ability and favours students who are talented. In these circumstances, equity or social demand in the Western sense is not so much an issue in Singapore. The recent move to create independent schools which enjoys more autonomy than others seems to be a change from the quantitative to the qualitative, and a move from macroscopic concerns to microscopic performance. Such a move, however, tackles the equity-efficiency dilemma with an approach very different from the Western developed countries. In fact, the least-able streams in both primary and secondary schools have recently been reduced to insignificant sizes.

Hong Kong, despite its free market characteristic of the economy, designs its education system very much on manpower requirements. This was particularly the case in the 1970s when there was the intention to contain the scale of senior secondary schools according to manpower needs. In the 1980s, there was a change in orientation and a social demand approach was adopted. Most recently, with the foreseeable changeover of government in 1997, the current government launches a massive expansion in higher education to cope with the enormous emigration. There is an attempt to satisfy both manpower needs and social demands, apparently at the expense of public revenues. In other words, in times of political uncertainty, political considerations have overtaken rational deliberations in educational planning and policy-making.

Apart from the NIEs, China's educational planning is also very much manpower oriented, particularly at senior secondary and tertiary levels.

Manpower forecasting has been a long tradition in China, but recently it has carried out manpower forrecasting with new level of sophistication, to which we shall return soon. The manpower approach in China is understandably consistent with the very nature of planned economy, but has met new challenges with the emergence of market elements in its economy.

Third, despite the fact that in many developing countries, people believe in education as the driving force for economic growth, most of the recent education policies do not include this as an explicit objective. One deviation of the recent trend from earlier conventions is that equity, curriculum and management issues have overtaken manpower requirements. This may be explicable in two directions. On the one hand, policy-makers may argue that manpower plans have seldom succeeded in developing countries in ther region and therefore it is justified to ignore manpower requirements in the planning of education. On the other hand, it is equally justified to argue that developing countries have now adopted longer-term perspectives and therefore have moved away from narrow-minded manpower approaches.

It would be unfair to leave the topic without mention of the Pacific Islands. Planning of education on the Islands serve the triple purpose of teaching agro-technical skills, providing basic education, and supplying civil servants for the newly independent governments. Even in the small nations, there are tendencies of educated unemployment because of the limited size of the modern sector.

The Machineries of Educational Planning

There are largely two concepts of a planning institution in the region. First, there is the concept that planning is secondary to decision making. Hence educational planning is done in small units or bureaux

within government departments. Second, there is the concept that planning is a major component of educational policy-making, hence educational planning is carried out in institutions which has authority in educational policy matters.

Not all countries have a special organ for educational planning. The strongest educational planning machinery perhaps exists in China. This is compatible with the nature of the planned economy in the nation. In China, before 1989, educational planning is taken care by three inter-related but separate departments within the State Education Commission.

First, there was the Planning and Finance Bureau which took care of the national annual and five-year plans. It directly supervised the provincial planners who took care of the corresponding provincial plans. The Planning and Finance Bureau was executive in nature and controlled the financing of local education according to annual plans.

Second, there was the Planning Office, which since 1984 launched a nation-wide exercise to plan education for 15 years up to the year 2000. The Planning Office was semi-executive and semi-research in nature. It organized its own team of researchers, meanwhile soliciting support from local personnel. The Planning Office divided its plan into two major components: (a) plans for compulsory 9-year education formulated according to demography changes and available resources (human and physical) and (b) plans for higher education and technical education drawn according to comprehensive manpower survey and sophisticated manpower projections. The overall plan is compiled by making reference to individual provincial plans. The Planning Office in the central government was matched by provincial Offices of Manpower which carry out provincial planning is a similar pattern. The provincial offices in turn establish Manpower Offices at county level, carrying out planning at county level.

Third, there was the Policy Research Office which was purely research in nature and looked at very long term policy orientations. There were recent reshuffles which changed the names and nature of the departments, but the functions remain.

The delineation above is far from complete. The State Planning Commission, for example, has an education division in its Social Bureau which also looks at education. In reality, the State Planning Commission conducts resource allocation, and looks after all capital expenditures, mainly for constructions. Various non-educational ministries also have their own small units for planning education, because in the Chinese system, almost every ministry has to care for the supply of its own manpower and hence operate its own technical/vocaitonal schools and universities. The over-complication of the planning mechanisms has often caused confusions.

In India, although actual planning is still done within the government, professional scrutiny of education plans is done by the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA). This has the advantage that policies are legitimated by rational deliberations, although the decision-maker still makes the final choice.

In the Republic of Korea, there is a division of Educational Planning within the Educational Foundations and Policy Research Department in the Korean Educational Development Institute. It may take up jobs on planning of a research nature. The Institute is therefore very influential in advising the national government in overall education policies. Regular planning is carried out by the Planning and Management Office of the Ministry of Education.

Much is said in the documents about education policies and planning,

but little is said about the actual organization which does the planning. Again little is documented about the interaction of actors in the policy-making and planning processes. Even less is mentioned about the interaction between planning and policy-making organizations. This is characteristic of the region. This reflects to a large extent the non-particitory nature of planning and policy-making in the region. The polities are very different from Western democracy.

Overall, the politcal culture in the region, apart from Australia and New Zealand, seems to tolerate the opaqueness and secrecy in educational planning and policy-making. However, the culture seems to move towards the Western standard, particularly in the NIEs (Hong Kong and the Republic of Korea in particular) where there is public ooucry for more transparency in educational planning and policy-making.

Anyway, there is a general neglect of the process of planning and policy-making. The science of policy-analysis in the international sense is yet to be developed in the region.

Participation in Educational Planning

Apart from Australia and New Zealand where Western ideas of democracy prevails, political participation is comparatively low in general. This explains the low participation in the planning and policy-making of education in the region. However, recent developments has seen signs of more popular participation in planning and policy-making in education.

In 1981, a Schools' Council was set up as an open forum for education policies. It also facilitates feedback on the effects of education policies in schools. Members of the Council comprise the Minister of Education, the Minister of State, the Parliamentary Secretary, the Permanent Secretary/Director of Education, the seven divisional Directors

and the Director of the Institute of Education as well as appointed principals of primary, secondary schools and junior colleges. In fact, the Independent Schools Scheme mentioned earlier was a response to a report of 16 principals who toured 25 "best" schools in U.K. and U.S in 1986.

In 1981 Hong Kong adopted the OECD model and invited an international panel (organized by the OECD) to review its education system. Aapart from the industrialized countries Australia, Japan and New Zealand, this is the fisrt time an OECD review was carried out in the developing part of the region. The process was extra-ordinarily open in the sense that fairly comprehensive representations were sought during the review and many of the recommendations went against conventional thinkings of the government. The recommendations were eventually adopted by the government as basis for education policies.

In Maldives, a National Convention on Public Concern for Education was held in 1989 where the general public was invited to walk-in and comment on education policies. In the five-day meeting, 253 suggestions for educational change were solicited.

Similar practices occur in other countries, either in a regular or irregular basis. However, the case of Maldives' National Convention and Hong Kong's OECD review are rather exceptional in the region. Although there is progress in participation in almost every country, in general, governments in the region are more ready to tolerate consultation among legitimized groups rather than representative participation or free participation of the general public.

Integrated Approach of Educational Planning

We have earlier touched upon the necessity of integrated approach in educational planning. On the one hand, education has been identified as an

integral part of human resources development, and hence has to be considered in the broader context of human resources development; on the other hand, it has become increasingly necessary to integrate different sectors and levels within education.

Human resources development

Human resources development, as understood in the region, was first raised in the Jakarta Plan of Action enacted in 1988. It is very much promoted by the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP). The basic observation is that

> While the human factor plays a decisive role in economic and social progress, it is also the people who are the intended beneficiaries of development. Human resources development is, in this perspective, much more than an instrument for development: it is the ultimate objective of the development process. (ESCAP, 1988:7)

In practice, the concept of human resources development is summarily interpreted as *distributive equity* and *popular participation* in most countries in the region.

The concept is appealing to many developing countries, and has given new meaning to the development of education. Many countries have soon adopted the notion and integrated its education programmes as part of its human resources development endeavours. India, for example, has even renamed its Ministry of Education to Ministry of Human Resources.

Human resources development is of course not a new concept, but it has obtained refreshed interpretations in the region. A survey earlier this year revealed that in many countries, the policy and implementation of human resources development lies within various line departments. Such departments include education, labour, health, planning and so on. There are, however, a few governments in the region which have established special co-ordinating organs for human resources development. They are

India - Ministry of Human Resources Development, comprising the Departments of Education, Culture, Youth Services and Sports, Women and Child Development

Nepal - Human Resources Planning Division of the National Planning Commission

Philippines - Social Development Committee of the National Economic and Development Authority

Solomon Islands - Ministry of Education and Human Resources

There are other diverse responses to the call for human resources development.

In China, the concept of human resources development coincide with the recent national policy "to raise the quality of the population" which can be seen as a deviation, or at least a complement, to the bare manpower requirements approach in educational planning. This has resulted in the attention to school drop-outs, adult literacy, youth unemployment and birth planning (Qian, 1989). As an example, in 1985, the Government launched a national *Sparks Programme* in rural areas. The Programme, which is combination of vocational-technical education and literacy eradication, attempts to achieve rural development and resolve surplus of rural manpower.

In Indonesia, the move towards human resources development gives rise to the PKK programme which is non-governmental, but typically actively participated by wives of government officials. In the programme, "cadres" at village levels are organized into "action groups" which are responsible for the implementation of a 10-point comprehensive programme in which "education and skills" is a major component (Masinambow, 1989).

In the Philippines, the notion human resources development is embodied in the 1987 Constitution and the relevant laws. In this context,

education is regarded as the key to equalizing development opportunity for the disadvantaged. The chief measures include democratizing the access to education and training, launching entrepreneurial training for self-employment in rural setting, and carrying out values education and functional literacy programmes through networking by the Department of Education and other relevant departments (Eufemio, 1989).

In Thailand, the development of human resources is taken care by the National Economic and Social Development Board which appoints a Committee for Human Resources and Employment Planning to oversee the improvement of effective manpower planning. The attention to human resources development has, however, given rise to concern of issues such as income inequality, educated unemployement, manpower utilization and the role of the private sector. In particular, a mechanism to incorporate the private sector in manpower planning, education planning and labour market policies has been developed through the Joint Public and Private Sector Consultative Committee for Occupational Development (Phyormyont, 1989).

In many others countries, the task of human resources development is undertaken by the government agencies on manpower, and the actual programmes are often no more than manpower development and planning. This reflects the fact that while most governments realize the need for an integrated approach to planning education, the attentions are still very much on the economic functions of manpower. The social aspects of human resources development and its relations with the economy are often neglected. In other words, the development of human resources is still seen as a means to economic success, rather than as policy goal by itself. This inclination is compatible with the functionalist orientation of educational planning in the region.

The Jakarta Plan of Action mentioned earlier made 33 recommendations which are appropriate to the region. The 33 recommendations pertain to 6 categories:

(a) policy and planning,

(b) institutional strengthening,

(c) education and training,

(d) research and analysis,

(e) information systems, and

(f) monitoring and evaluation.

In the first category, which is particularly relevant to this paper, the Plan called for priority be given at national level to human resources development, to adopt an integrated approach to human resources development and to emphasize on demand-oriented strategies. It also called for popular participation as well as participation by the private sector and non-governmental organizations. As targets of human resources development, the Plan asked for focus on specific groups, particularly the deprived, and to improve the quality of life. It paid special attention to employment generation, both in the formal and informal sectors. Special attention is also paid to human resources development in the area of science and technology.

The Jakarta Plan of Action was well supported in the Expert Group Meeting held in Seoul in early 1989 where the Korean case was studied. With special reference to the regional environments, the Expert Group made a number of observations which may prove essential and practical.

Among others, the Expert Group observed that "excessive priority given to economic growth objectives could lead to the exploitation of the labour force and the neglect of human needs". Hence human resources development should be taken as a crucial dimension in integrated socio-

economic development, rather than a mere instrument for economic growth. Apart from economic outcomes, human resources development should serve the multiple purposes of poverty reduction, distributive equity and popular participation.

The group also observed that often popular participation and local initiatives are inhibited by the paternalistic leadership of the government. In this respect, the group therefore sees the trend for privitization and non-governmental participation as constructive.

As recommendation to member countries, the group identified the following issues which command priority attention:

- persistence of mass poverty
- limited human relevance of development
- technological advancement and labour redundancy
- rapid turnover in industrial skills
- adaptation of high-tech versus labour-dominant economies
- provision of education and training for participation
- mismatch between supply and demand of human resources
- socio-cultural constraints on human resources development

Although many of the issues have been attended to for decades, the idea is that such issues can hopefuly be better tackled within a comprehensive framework which is human resources development.

The formal introduction of the concept of human resources development in its new context is only recent to the region. The Jakarta Plan of Action and the Seoul Meeting received enthusiastic support from the member countries. The actual implementation and implications are yet to be seen. Although the concept goes beyond the field of education, it nevertheless reinforced the neccesity for integrated approach to planning in education.

Integration between Formal and Nonformal Education

Most of the countries in the region has rather developed systems of nonformal education. Such education ranges from literacy programmes to degree conferring open universities.

There is a tendency in the member countries that at school-age levels, formal schooling and nonformal programmes should be regarded as complementary to each other and sometimes should co-operate.

The notion of *co-ordination and complementarity* has not only gained sympathy from member countries, but is also practised in many. Co-ordination implies co-ordinated planning where all relevant departments, government and non-government, interact, with a view of optimal utilization of resources. Complementarity means bringing about mutual support between the formal and nonformal sectors of education, in terms of physical facilities, personnel, administrative structure, instruction materials, training of teachers, supervision, evaluation and certification.

In China, there are spare-time schools in rural areas to mount programmes for those who have already completed literacy programmes. Such schools are operated with the co-operation between the school teachers and literacy workers, and co-ordinated by the education officer in the township.

In India, institutions in the formal sector are expected to impart some of their technical/vocational teaching materials in extension services offered by the nonformal sector.

In Indonesia, the Directorate General of Non-formal Education, Youth and Sports designed special programmes to cater for out-of-school youths and adults so that they may also have the opportunity to achieve basic education. Some of these programmes make use of local resources, but are

based on regular school curriculum. Among these, there is an effort to blend primary schooling with literacy programme (PAKET A) where participants who have passed their school ages are also awarded primary school equivalancy certificates.

In the Philippines, the Bureau of Elementary Education and the Bureau of Continuing Education join hands in the planning of universalization of primary education, science education and basic-skills training. The formal and nonformal sectors also join hands in improving the participation and survival rates in schools.

In Thailand, some of the Area Vocational Centres are operated under the joint effort of the Department of General Education, the Non-formal Education Department and the Department of Vocational Education. There is also a recommendation to the Cabinet to set up a Committee on Policy and Planning to co-ordinate formal and nonformal education activities so as the optimize the ulitization of existing facilities.

In most other countries, there are some degress of co-ordination and complementarity at the implementation level. It is quite common in the rural areas that school buildings, which are the most decent places for holding classes, are used for evening classes for literacy programmes or skills training (e.g. Sri Lanka, China)

In a UNESCO/RPOAP conference in 1986, the issue of co-ordination and complementarity between formal and nonformal eduction was tackled. The conference identified seven issues of concern, and 15 areas with strategies for implementation. Above all, there is a lack of clear-cut policy on co-ordination and complementarity of formal and nonformal education. Most of what occurs are incidental and ad hoc in nature. To rectify this, there is at least the need to establish co-ordinated

planning mechanisms and machineries at various levels and a parity of resource allocation between formal and nonformal education.

Integration for basic education

This occurs in the region most significantly in the APPEAL international project. As mentioned earlier, APPEAL (Asia Pacific Programme of Education for All) is an attempt to mobilize international as well as national efforts to integrate Universalization of Primary Education (UPE), Eraducation of Illiteracy (EOI) and Continuing Education for Development (CED).

The entire theme of the programme is *integration.* The approach is trying to cope with the non-enrolment and drop-out situation by taking long-term perspectives in educating the illiterate adults, as well as the influx of illiterate youth.

In one of the co-ordination conferences of the APPEAL, it is concluded

> Countries in the region are becoming increasingly aware of the need, during implementation of APPEAL, to take into consideration the complex interactions among EOI, UPE and CED and their implications on the effectiveness and efficiency of APPEAL. .. It has repeatedly stressed that APPEAL will have to be planned and implemented in an intergrated manner, taking full cognizance of the effects of non-enrolment and drop-out on the level of future literacy efforts and the role of non-formal continuing education to attenuate these negative effects and to consolidate literacy. (Unesco/PROAP, 1989b: 30-32)

In order to implement the programme, National Co-ordination Committees were established. Such committees have implicitly started a framework which could well serve the purpose of further integration. However, it is also identified that countries achieve more in the APPEAL programme if there exist in such countries co-ordinating mechanisms which involve key officials from both government and non-government agencies, and if there is the support of the countries' development plans.

Micro-level Planning

We have encountered micro-level managment in an earlier section. The idea of micro-level planning is particularly appealing, because it enables integrated planning at a local level, where co-ordination at higher levels are not readily available.

It is quite common in the region that in rural areas, where the community is loosely organized and bureaucracy is less significant as is the case in urban towns, co-operation between different sectors is not only a possibility, but also a necessity.

In India, planning of education in rural areas is basically a local endeavour. It is carried out by the District Councils mentioned earlier. The District Councils, which are virtually political centres in the villages, have the best knowledge of the local environments for education development, and hence can see to the feasibility of the plans.

In China, the provincial plan for basic education (instituting 9-year compulsory education) is practically an integration of county plans. At county level, the planning unit (or office) usually comprises local key figures in economy, planning and labour, and is usually headed by a deputy county governor who oversees the general economic and social developments in the county, usually of the size of half-a-million people. The county government makes sure that the proposed plans are compatible with the financial abilities of the locality. The actual planning goes down to school level so that each school collects demographic data (usually of the 0-15 or 18 population) in the catchment area, and plans its own future accordingly. Although there are minor adjustments during the integration of plans at higher levels, there are in general little problem in implementation, because the criteria are generally realistic and come from grass-root levels.

The concept of Multi-Level Planning

This is another attempt to integrate all efforts relevant to the planning and management to yield optimal results.

The concept of multi-level planning is a summary of the needs in many countries in the region. It is felt in mamy countries that while decentralization is favoured, it does not lessen the responsibility of central planning. In large countries in particular, such as China and India, where there are several levels of administration each of which handles planning to some extent, it is in practice that the central and local government have to interact in a very vigorous way before a viable plan can ever come into being. In China, for example, it usually takes two or three "return journeys" of the plans, before the plans at different levels are compatible (or, an equilibrium is reached, as is the term used in China). The concept of multi-level planning formalizes this concept and renders help to countries who are inexperienced in decentralised planning.

TRAINING AND CAPACITY BUILDING FOR EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT AND PLANNING

The General Situation

Training of personnel for management and planning of education is a relatively recent phenmenon in the region. Most of the school principals in Asian schools are experienced teachers but few of them are trained for management. Likewise, planners in the region seldom come into their positions by training. This on the one hand has the advantage that many of the planners in the region are themselves grass-root professionals and know best what are the needs and problems in the field. The disadvantage is that such "bare-foot" planners may be too committed to the methods they acquire from exprience at the microscopic level and are less ready to adopt alternatives or innovations at macroscopic levels. There are, nevertheless, cases where planners are recruited or transferred from pure administrative posts. In these latter cases, it is not uncommon that these planners are criticized for inclined too much to the routines.

Local Training Institutes

There are a few Institutes for Educational Administration such as the one in Geelong, Australia and the one in Beijing, China. They are committed to training school administrators in the province or in the country, and do not involve in the training of planners. Other institutional efforts for training are rare in the region.

The academic courses in Educational Administration and Planning in universities (e.g. in Australia, New Zealand, Hong Kong and so on), leading to Certificates, Diplomas or Master degrees, are *de facto* significant local training grounds for educational administration and planning. As mentioned earlier, the Commonwealth Council for Educational

Administration, the world's largest international professional organization for educational administration, is based in Armidale, Australia, and the Councils of Educational Administration in Hong Kong, Singapore and India are among the most active of all the affiliated councils in the Commonwealth.

India's National Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA) creates a new category. It is a powerful research-training institute, similar in nature to the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) in Paris. Apart from training administrators and planners for both national and sub-national governments, it participates actively in national policy-making and planning of education. It has acted as a think-tank for the national government for policy deliberations in education. Recently, NIEPA has also contributed to development and training of educational administrators and planners in South Asia, and sometimes of those in Africa. In a sense, it has developed itself into a regional centre.

More or less following the Indian NIEPA model, the National Institute for Education (NIE) has been newly estalbished in Sri Lanka, although the latter works in a broader area than educational administration and planning. A National Institute for Educational Management is established in Malaysia. It is mainly a training institute for school administrators. Nearer to the NIEPA model is the Academy for Educational Planning and Management in Pakistan.

The emergence of these local institutions has demonstrated the desire among national governments to establish their own capacities in training and research in educational administration and planning, a policy goal which is common in almost all reform documents of countries in the region.

International Training Facilities

When compared with the large number of countries in the region, the institutes mentioned in the above paragraph are still small in number. In the majority of countries, training of educational administrators and planners still relies on the developed countries and international organizations. U.K., Canada, U.S.A. and Australia are the common places where training is sought. Such training are largely academic in nature.

Otherwise, training of educational administrators and planners are still largely the endeavours of international organizations. Very often, training of administrators and planners are project themes of international aids, often by the World Bank, the UNESCO and UNDP.

In this respect, the efforts of the RPOAP are remarkable, which has organized numerous training seminars and workshops either on an international basis, or sometimes on a national basis.

The annual training programme in the International Institute for Educational Planning are actively participated by trainees from countries in the region, although the number each year can only be limited.

Changing Concerns of Training

Over the years, there is an identifiable change in the concern of training. Such a change come generally in line with the trend in the internatinal scene, but is sometimes specific to the circumstances in the region. There are at least three of such identifiable changes.

First, there is a lowering of the administrative level of trainees. More and more training programmes, both national and international, prepare administrators and planners for local governments. This is consistent with the trend in the region to decentralize or de-regulate the governance of education, and with the shift of emphasis from macro level

administration to school level endeavours in the wake of quality concern.

Second, there is a growing concern of the training of trainers, so as to develop within the nation a self-reliant capacity of training. This is, however, done with some difficulties. Training in many countries are either understood as a complete transplant of training in Western communities, or indulgence into purely academic studies which is quite irrelevant to improving the standard of administration in schools. Training of trainers would mean the breeding of a generation of local administrators who are well aware of the international literature, yet equally familiar with the culture and practice in their own countries. This is particular important to countries like India and China, where educational planning, for example, has been practised for quite a long time, yet little systematization is going on. A systematization of their experience will not only play a crucial training role in the respective countries, but will also benefit other developing countries.

Third, there is the increasing interest in MIS (Management Information System) in general and the use of computors in information management and planning in particular. In a matter of two or three years in the mid-1980s, Japan, Hong Kong and Singapore became the most active users of micro-computers. Other countries soon catch up. Both Hong Kong and Singapore have adopted a policy which encourages import of both computer hardware and software. The inexpensive availability of computers have facilitated extra-ordinary spread of the use of micro-computers. At some stage, the practice of pirate computers has also played a facilitating yet disgraceful role.

Among others, two points are noticeably characteristic of the region.

On the one hand, despite the sensitiveness of politics in many of the developing countries in the region, the concern in the technico-political

interactions in educational planning, which is quite a prevalent theme in the international community, does not emerge as an issue in the region. With the exception of Australia and New Zealand, where the societies are basically Western in nature, societies in the region still follow very much the rational model in policy-making and planning, and tend to pay little attention to the political dimensions of educational management and planning. Hence, there is no lack of interest in building the technical capacity for policy-making and planning, but issues such as improvement in participation and political analysis seldom come onto the agenda. The delicate political situations in many of the countries have reinforced this tendency: many who have genuine concern of education adopt an apolitical attitude as a safeguard against non-professinal interference.

Recently, in China, provincial county plans are legitimated by what are known as validation exercises, where all parties concerned are invited to discuss and scrutinize the proposal plans, before they go to the respective local People's Congress for formal legitimization. This can be seen as an attempt to establish a capacity for political participation in educational planning.

On the other hand, modern technologies in educational planning and administration, the use of microcomputers in particular, is spreading with a speed inproportionate to the economic development of many countries. This may be attributable to the strong mathematical traditions in Chinese and Indian communities, where computer phobia is practically non-existent. This may also be attributable to the earlier point that such purely technological devices are seen as posing no threat to any political authority in power.

Cultural Aspects of Training

Culture difference is increasingly a concern in management training in the business field (see e.g. Hofstede, 1984). Much is said about the management in Japan, others paid attention to the Chinese style of management. Anyway, the success of ethnic Chinese and Indians in the developing world is well recognized. However, little is initiated in this direction in educational administration and management. Singapore is perhaps the most active country in promoting cultural identity in education in general, and educational administration in particular.

INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION

General Situations

International and regional co-operation in edcucational administration and planning have seen significant progress in the past decade in the region. By nature of the diversity and difference among countries in the region, regional co-operation itself should bear fruit, as is viewed by the Unesco PROAP:

> Regional co-operation is an expression of international co-operation which recognizes alternative models and varied paths for development and focusses on collaborative problem solving, complimentarity in development efforts and pooling of expriences and resources among countries belonging to broadly defined geographical territory. (Unesco/PROAP, 1988a)

There is significant evidence that international co-operation in the region has moved from the purely North-South paradigm to include much of a South-South interaction. In the 1960s and even 1970s, much of the international co-operation are aid-projects, research project or experiments carried out by researchers in the North who are closely related to the region due to past colonial connections.

Although the expertise from developed countries are still playing an essential role in the region, and there is no reason that they should withdraw, the past decade or two has seen regional co-operations which involve increasing more local experts serving the region. However, bilateral co-operations are still rare in the region, despite the fact that experts in one country may be working in another country on international projects. The latter is very much due to the heavy involvement of the international organizations, UNESCO, UNICEF, the World Bank in particular, in education programmes in the region.

International Aid in Planning and Management

The Asian Development Bank, based in Manila, the Philippines, has been active for quite some time, and has recently, in 1982, created an Education Division to take care of loans in the education sector. It is likely to become a significant partner in educational discussions in the region. In the period 1970-1987, 36 education loans were approved by the Bank. More recently (1988:70-72), the Asian Development Bank has identified five priority areas for educational loans: (a) primary education and adult literacy, (b) broadening and differentiation of secondary education, (c) efficiency and alternatives in higher education, (d) non-formal education as flexible low-cost alternatives to formal education, and (e) the strengthening of institutional development and research capacities, including planning and management.

The World Bank is also an active participant in the region. In recent years, large portions of World Bank loans in the region has gone to the People's Republic of China and Indonesia. The proportion of these loans in the area of planning and managenment is comparatively small.

UNESCO Principal Regional Office

The UNESCO Regional Principal Office for Asia and Pacific (RPOAP) remains the indespansable agent. Within the Unesco framework, apart from APPEAL which is mentioned in the previous chapter, there are also on-going international co-operations in APEID and MINEDAP.

APEID is the acronym for Asia and Pacific Programme of Educational Innovation for Development. The primary focus is on educational innovations for social and economic development. For example, a recent APEID programme on teacher education looks at the reform, innovations and initiatives in teacher education, in the context of improving education

for national development. The programme carries out international studies as well as seminars for exchange and dissemination of experience and information in this respect.

MINEDAP is where the Ministers of Education in Asia and Pacific meet, on the average of once every six years. The purpose of the meeting is to consider the trends of education development in the region. The MINEDAP apparises the situations in the region, identifies new priority areas and recommends programmes for Unesco.

Other Unesco programmes of international co-operation occur in population education, educational facilities, educational planning, management and statistics, science and technology education, technical and vocational education, international understanding, environment education, and early childhood and special education.

The RPOAP is not only instrumental in UNESCO-related activities, it also palys the role of a facilitator in inter-organizational co-operations and dialogues.

While a listing of all the contributions of the RPOAP is impossible, it is worth mentioning that the RPOAP has held as many regional meeting as national workshops to discuss substantial topics in educational planning and management, and to train personnel therein.

Recent themes in such seminars and workshops include EMIS (Educational Management Information System), APPEAL (as mentioned earlier) and micro-level planning. Workshops have held in almost all the countries in the region.

The RPOAP has very good relations with the SEAMEO (Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization) which is the most active and substantial international organization under the ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations) network.

Two recent developments are encouraging. Recent educational discussions under the UNESCO umbrella have received active participation from Australia and New Zealand. These two developed countreis had for decades been isolated from the education community in the region. Although there may still be cultural gaps to be filled, their participation proves constructive. The other development is the participation of the Pacific Islands. Apart from their participation in other activities, a special seminar was organized in 1988 on Micro-computer Based EMIS for the Small Island Countries. Six countries, Fiji, Maldives, Papue New Guinea, Solomon Island and Tonga participated. This is meant to be a pilot project to be extended to further endeavours.

Other International Co-operations

Apart form UNESCO, the SEAMEO held regular meetings on policy matters and support regional centres for teaching and research, for example, in science education and language education.

There is RIHED, the Regional Institute of Higher Education and Development. It was initiated by the Southeast Asian governments in 1970 and has now temporarily suspended its operations.

The Commonwealth network is also strong in the region, partly because of the large number of past British colonies, partly because the spread of such past-colonies in all sectors of the region: many of hte South Asian countries in the developing sector, Singapore and Hong Kong among the NIEs, Austrlia and New Zealand as developed countries, and many of the small island countries. The Commmonwealth influence is strong in a number of dimensions. The Education Programme in the Human Resource Development Group of the Commonwealth Secretariat is active in policy affairs in the region, and is recently active in publishing training materials for

educational planning and management personnel. The Students Mobility Study in 1986 involves a large number of countries and territories in the region. It recent attention to small states also involves a large number of island countries in the Pacific (Biennial, 1989). The Association of Commonwealth Universities has a large membership among countries in the region. The many University Grants Committee have close links with one another. There are also lower level network such as the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration (CCEA, mentioned above) whose particular attention is on planning and management of education.

There is also the ASAHIL, Association of Southeast Asian Institutions of High Learning.

Other informal and non-governmental co-operations include a SEARRAG (Southeast Asia Research Review Advisory Group) which is an information network relaying to each other trends and activities educational research in the region, with special attention to educational policies. It is also related to other RRAGs in other parts of the world.

FUTURE PROSPECTS

Moving towards Diversity

As mentioned at the beginning of this paper, the last two decades see general economic progress in the region and that has led to new attentions to education. Quite different from the education expansions in the 1960s and early 1970s, the recent reforms in the large number of countries reflect genuine needs felt within the nations rather than reactions to fashionable beliefs in the international scene.

It is therefore understandable that (a) the reforms represent rather diverse goals specific to the countries, (b) countries in similar stages of development bear similar goals and (c) even within a country, the emphasis on decentralization and autonomy (both local and institutional) underlies most of the reform measures.

China and India, for example, have independently launched reforms both aiming at decentralization of rural basic education and development of vocational education for local needs. Australia and New Zealand have both taken measures to cope with increasing unemployment problems. Japan and the Rebublic of Korea have common reform goals of moving away from the traditional values of uniformity and conformity, to face new technological challenges ahead. Singapore and Hong Kong, almost at the same time, seek to increase the autonomy of schools to allow strife for excellence, again as preparations to move into new era of high-tech.

Diversity inevitably will lead to new disparity both within and cross nations. Nationally, although equity is one of the goals in many of the national reforms, it is not foreseeable that the consequent measures can curb the increase in disparity. In fact, many of the reform measures serve to increase rather than decrease disparity.

In general, while almost all countries in the region seem to look forward to greater progress in the future, the gap between the more developed and the less developed is likely to widen. As an example, the Southeast Asian group, which used to be rather homogeneous in economic status, is likely to exhibit significant difference, with Thailand and Malaysia moving faster than the others. Such differences are evidently reflected in education developments.

Preparation for Further Economic Development

The success stories of the NIEs and the significant progress in the rural nations in the region has encouraged countries in the region to anticipate further development in the economy.

The prevalent theory in the region has been that at the take-off stage of an export-oriented economy, a flexible work force with basic education is essential. The key word then is *adaptability*. Further development of export-oriented economies would require a work force which is conscious of technological changes and is able to develop new technologies. Even this purely economic explanation of the success of the NIEs points to the importance of basic education.

Recent developments in Thailand, Malaysia, and to some extents in the Philippines, seem to have supported this theory. Although few now believe that education is the only driving force for economic development, it seems evident that basic education is a necessary (although not sufficient) condition for economic take-off.

The second stage in the theory above suggested that for further development, it is the quality of education and the quality of individuals that may play an important role. This seems again evident in the NIEs, and even Japan, where it is felt that a mere expansion in the quantity of

education is not sufficient to support sustained economic development. That may explain the move, either consciouly or subconsiously, in the philosophy underlying recent education reforms in Japan and the NIEs.

Emphasis on Human Resources

Asia and the Pacific is perhaps the most ready among all regions to accept the notion of human resources, partly because success stories of the NIEs occur exactly in this region, and partly because the relative stable situations have made such a notion viable.

Many of the countries in the region are looking forward to move upmarket in the coming decade, and this is closely related to the development of human resources, as is identified by Unesco/PROAP in 1987, and education is to play a crucial role:

> A movement was evident throughout the region away from the production of primary sector comodities, towars high-value export-oriented products. This shift revealed a significant growth in the reliance on science and technology.
>
> It has traditionally been the monopoly of the industrialised countries to carry out basic research leaving the developing countries to a large extent to assume the role of buyer of scientific knowhow and technology. ...[E]ducation [is] to re-orient the situation in optimizing the nuturing of the capacity to creating knowledge ....
>
> This fact serves to emphasize the importance of human resource development in any strategy for overall socio-economic development. In this region, the experience of Hong Kong, Singapore and Japan serve as standing examples in this regard. (Unesco/PROAP, 1987:22-23)

Non-economic Goals in Planning and Management

Another evident direction of change is the attention to non-economic goals. It is noticeable that in the East Asian countries, Japan and the Republic of Korea in particular, where collectivism has been a tradition, and has been claimed as a major attribute to their economic success, recent reforms seek to inculcate individuality and creativity. In China,

there are new goals of "improvement of the national quality" and "construction of spiritual civilization" which, until recently, are quite apart from ideological propaganda. This is again a remarkable change in educational thoughts.

Other countries have also paid revived attention to eradication of literacy and alleviation of poverty. In one way or another, these has grown out of genuine feelings of long term development neccesities. These are quite different form the previous scene where near-sighted economic growth predominates educational policies.

Along this line of thinking, many of the countries with old civilizations have recently revitalized moral education or value education which are seen as important elements to maintain or enhance the quality of the nation.

In this respect, the notion of human resources development goes far beyond the domain of economy. It helps national policy-makers summarise their national needs in a comprehensive and balanced manner. In fact it supports planners to argue against purely economic goals for education.

Redefinition of Basic Education

Basic education is still the major concern of most of the developing countries in the region. There is a move to place more emphasis on basic education. This is evident in South Asian countries where the significant reforms all occur in rural areas. It also occurs in China, where there is a new policy orientation to "lower the centre of gravity", implying a new emphasis of resource allocation to basic education.

Seen in this light, the *Education for All* movement is not only gaining momentum among central governments, but is also welcome by grass-root educators. The task is now a re-definition of basic education.

A recent IIEP (International Institute for Educational Planning) research project on basic education, carried out in China and India, attempts to ask a number of questions: *What is basic education? What are the requirements from education as seen from the society? Are the schools fulfilling such requirements? When can we say a child has reached the basic requirements? What are taught in schools that are not required by the society? What are required by the society but not taught in schools?* And so on.

Such simple and obvious questions are found not easy to answer. Although the project is still going on, findings will expectedly point to locality-specific answers. In particularly large countries like India and China, unified goals and uniform systems of formal schooling may find themselves insufficient to meet the genuine needs of basic education.

The re-definition of basic education will inevitably lead to an integrated approach to the management and planning of basic education, which is now not restricted to primary schooling, which has to incorporate literacy programmes among the adults, but which will not be effective if not integrated with the continuing education of adults for individual development in the society. Hence the APPEAL project launched by the RPOAP starts a new way of conceiving education. From the evidence gathered in this region, there is little hope of achieving education for all if the notion is restricted to formal schooling.

The Significance of Culture

Recent developments in education in the region has also pointed to the importance in cross-cultural studies. The notion "Japan as No. 1" summarizes the understatement that there is a culture in the region which explains many of the successes in Japan and the NIEs, but which is not

shared by every other part of the world.

There is therefore a growing body of literature which tries to identify cultural differences and how such differences may serve to explain international differences. These has been largely in the fields of psychology and management studies. Studies in this orientation in eduaction is just beginning.

However, cultural comparison itself is highly controversial, and the theories are premature to claim any achievement. The basic problem is that it is always unjustified to apply cross-cultural judgements, and any cross-cultural duplication is bound to end up in failures. Nevertheless, the discussions and debates around cultural differences prove enlightening, and their implications on education could be far reaching.

Given that cultural studies do not support cross-cultural judgements, their real merits could be that different nations should have their development paths which are culture-specific. This may lead to theories about culture-appropriate economic policies and culture-appropriate technologies, and eventually culture-appropriate education developments. These go in line with the diverse developments in the region.

At this point, the recent education reform in Japan and the Republic of Korea should receive close attention. The reforms virtually involve a total overhaul of the basic philosophy of education and on the value of man. It is a change from collectivism to an emphasis on individuality; from conformity to creativity.

It may be argued that the change of educational thoughts in East Asia is very much prompted by the fact that given the challenge of high-tech competition ahead, there is a demand for inventive and creative minds, rather than mere adaptation and adoption of foreign technologies. If this

is the case, then the culture (sometimes known as the Confucian culture) which is prevalent in East Asia requires some re-appraisal.

If the reforms in Japan and the Republic of Korea proved successful, the impact on educational thoughts in the region would be tremendous.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

As is mentioned at the very beginning of this paper, the region is one of disparity and diversity. However, a review of the situations seems to suggest that the region is progressing in general, both in economic and educational terms. This is to be congratulated. The age of quantitative expansion of education is seemingly passing into history, and developments in educational management and planning is often considered in the context of improvement of quality and reduction of inequality. Given the distinctive cultural characteristics of the region, it can be envisaged that some culture-specific model of educational management and planning may emerge in the decades to come.

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Annex 1: Basic economic indicators by countries

	GNP (US$)) (1987)	Av. annual growth 1965-80	1980-87	% of urban population (1987)	% export/ manufac. (1985)
China	290	4.1	9.1	21	
India	300	1.5	3.1	27	59
Japan	15,760	5.1	3.2	84	
Australia	11,100	2.2	1.4	92	
New Zealand	7,750	1.7	1.3	84	
Hong Kong	8,070	6.2	5.3	93	92
Singapore	7,940	8.3	5.6	100	51
Macau	3,962				
Korea, R. of	2,690	7.3	7.3	68	92
Maylaysia	1,810	4.7	1.1	40	28
Turkey	1,210	3.6	3.0	47	
Thailand	850	4.4	3.5	21	35
Philippines	590	3.2	(3.1)	41	27
Indonesia	450	5.2	1.9	27	9
Sri Lanka	400	2.8	3.1	21	29
Pakistan	350	1.8	3.3	31	63
Maldives	300	-	1.9 d		6
Lao PDR	170	1.8 b	2.4 c	17	
Nepal	160	0.0	1.8	9	31
Bangladesh	160	(0.3)	0.9	13	61
Bhutan	150	4.5 b	5.5	5	
Afghanistan	233 a	0.6	2.2 c	21	15
Burma	190 a	2.3 e	5.5 f		6
Kampuchea, Dem.	80 a	-6.8 b	-2.1 c	11	
Viet Nam	110 a	3.8 b	10.8 c	21	
Korea, DR				65	
Mongolia				51	
Solomon Islands	420	7.5 b	3.6 f		0.0
Kiribati	480	2.2 b	3.9 c		0.1
Western Samoa	550	2.1 b	-1.0 f		
Fiji	1,570	-	2.2 d		5
Brunei Darussalam	15,390	-	-		
American Samoa	umi	-	-		
French Polynesia	hi	-	-		
Guam	umi	-	-		
New Caledonia	hi	-	-		
Cook Islands	1,360 a	-0.9 b	3.2 c		55
Tonga	904 a	5.4 b	8.6 c		4
Papua New Gunea	700 a	3.6 e	0.0		0.4
Vanuatu	590 a	4.7 b	7.6 f		0.6
Cyprus	5,200	-	-		

[Sources: ADB (1988) Annex B; World Bank (1989), Table 1 and Box A1; WCEFA Background Document, Table 1.]
[Notes: a. 1985 figures; b. 1970-1984; c. 1981-1984; d. 1965-1987; e. 1965-1984; f. 1980-1985; umi = upper-middle-income; hi = high-income.]
[Comparable data are not available for Nauru, Niue, Norfolk Island, Pacific Islands, Tokelau and Tuvalu.]

Annex 2: Population and growth by countries

	Population (millions) 1987	Population Density (per sq km)	Av. Annual Growth (%) 1980-87
China	1,068.5	112	1.2
India	797.5	243	2.1
Japan	122.1	328	0.6
Australia	16.2	2	1.4
New Zealand	3.3	12	1.0
Hong Kong	5.6	5,600	1.6
Singapore	2.6	2,600	1.1
Macau	0.4	-	-
Korea, R. of	42.1	430	1.4
Maylaysia	16.5	50	2.7
Turkey	52.6	67	2.3
Thailand	53.6	104	2.0
Philippines	58.4	195	2.5
Indonesia	171.4	89	2.1
Sri Lanka	16.4	57	3.4
Pakistan	102.5	127	3.1
Maldives	0.2	-	-
Lao PDR	17.6	125	2.7
Nepal	17.6	125	2.7
Bangladesh	106.1	737	2.8
Bhutan	1.3	28	2.0
Afghanistan	-	-	-
Burma	39.3	-	-
Kampuchea, Dem.	-	-	-
Viet Nam	65.0	197	2.6
Korea, DR	20.9	173	2.5
Mongolia	2.0	1	2.8
Solomon Islands	0.3	11	-
Kiribati	0.07	66	-
Western Samoa	0.17	55	-
Fiji	0.7	40	-
Brunei Darussalam	0.24	39	-
American Samoa	0.04	-	-
French Polynesia	0.18	45	-
Guam	0.13	128	-
New Caledonia	0.16	8	-
Cook Islands	0.02 (1985)	-	-
Tonga	0.10	100	-
Papua New Gunea	3.7	8	2.7
Vanuatu	0.15	15	-
Cyprus	0.68	0.1	-

[Sources: ADB (1988) Annex B; World Bank (1989), Table 1 and Box A1; WCEFA Background Document, Table 1.]

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Annex 3: Composition of Labour Force (1965 and latest figure available)

	Percentage of Labour Force in:					
	Agriculture		Industry		Services	
	1965	1980	1965	1980	1965	1980
China	-	69	-	19	-	12
India	73	70	12	13	15	17
Japan	26	11	32	34	42	55
Australia	10	7	38	31	52	61
New Zealand	13	11	36	33	51	56
Hong Kong	6	2	53	51	41	47
Singapore	5	2	27	38	68	61
Korea, R. of	56	36	14	27	30	37
Maylaysia	59	42	13	19	28	39
Turkey	75	58	11	17	14	25
Thailand	82	70	5	10	13	20
Philippines	58	52	16	16	26	33
Indonesia	71	57	9	13	20	30
Sri Lanka	56	53	14	14	30	33
Pakistan	60	55	18	16	22	30
Lao PDR	81	76	5	7	14	17
Nepal	94	93	2	1	4	6
Bangladesh	84	75	5	6	11	19
Bhutan	95	92	2	3	3	5
Afghanistan	69	-	11	-	20	-
Burma	64	53	13	19	23	28
Kampuchea, Dem.	80	-	4	-	16	-
Viet Nam	79	68	6	12	15	21
Korea, DR	57	43	23	30	20	27
Mongolia	55	40	20	21	25	39
Cook Islands	-	29	-	7	-	24
Fiji	-	44*	-	8*	-	19*
Papua New Gunea	87	76	6	10	7	14
Solomon Islands	-	30	-	10	-	37
Tonga	-	44	-	2	-	19
Vanuatu	-	77	-	2	-	-
Western Samoa	-	11	-	8	-	17

[Source: World Bank, 1986:238-9; ADB, 1988:81.]
* 1976 figures
[Data of other countries in the region are not available.]

Annex 4: Life expectancy and infant mortality (1987)

	Under 5 mortality rate	Life expectancy at birth
China	45	70
India	152	59
Japan	8	78
Australia	10	76
New Zealand	13	75
Hong Kong	10	76
Singapore	12	73
Macau	-	71
Korea, R. of	34	70
Maylaysia	33	70
Turkey	97	65
Thailand	51	66
Philippines	75	64
Indonesia	120	57
Sri Lanka	45	71
Pakistan	169	58
Maldives	-	59
Lao PDR	163	49
Nepal	200	52
Bangladesh	191	52
Bhutan	200	49
Afghanistan	304	42
Burma	98	61
Kampuchea, Dem.	208	49
Viet Nam	91	62
Korea, DR	-	69
Mongolia	-	-
Solomon Islands	-	66
Kiribati	-	53
Western Samoa	-	65
Fiji	-	70
Brunei Darussalam	-	74
American Samoa	-	-
French Polynesia	-	72
Guam	-	72
New Caledonia	-	68
Cook Islands	-	-
Tonga	-	66
Papua New Gunea	85	55
Vanuatu	-	63
Cyprus	-	76

[Sources: The State of the World's Children, 1989; World Development Report, 1989:230.

Annex 5: Education expenditures by countries

	as % of GNP		as % of total public expenditures	
	1975	1986	1975	1986
China	1.8	2.7*	4.2	8.1*
India	2.8	3.6*	8.6	9.4*
Japan	5.5	5.1*	22.4	17.9*
Australia	6.0	5.6*	14.8	12.8*
New Zealand	5.8	5.3	17.1	20.9
Hong Kong	2.7	2.8*	20.7	18.7*
Singapore	2.9	4.3*	8.6	9.6*
Macau				
Korea, R. of	2.2	4.5	13.9	27.3
Maylaysia	6.0	7.8	19.3	16.3*
Turkey	2.8*	2.1	10.6*	-
Thailand	3.6	3.9*	21.0	21.1*
Philippines	1.9	1.7	11.4	7.0*
Indonesia	2.7	2.0*	13.1	9.3*
Sri Lanka	2.8	3.5	10.1	9.4
Pakistan	2.2	2.1*	5.2	5.0*
Maldives	0.6*	-	3.1*	-
Lao PDR	-	1.0*	-	6.6
Nepal	1.5	3.0*	11.5	10.8
Bangladesh	1.1	2.1	13.6	10.5
Bhutan				
Afghanistan	1.3*	-	-	6.4*
Burma	1.7	-	15.3	-
Kampuchea, Dem.				
Viet Nam				
Korea, DR				
Mongolia				
Solomon Islands	-	5.2*	14.7	12.4*
Kiribati	4.9	-	-	17.5
Western Samoa	-	-	8.5*	-
Fiji	4.7	6.7*	19.5	-
Brunei Darussalam	2.0	2.0*	12.2	9.0*
American Samoa	14.2	8.2*	-	16.0
French Polynesia	8.3	9.7*	-	-
Guam	13.3	8.5*	-	-
New Caledonia	-	13.4*	-	-
Cook Islands	-	-	-	10.2*
Tonga	3.0	4.4*	12.7	16.1*
Papua New Gunea	7.7	-	14.2	-
Niue	-	-	18.6	10.9*
Norfolk Island	-	-	13.7	14.0*
Pacific Islands	27.0	19.0	-	-
Vanuatu				
Cyprus	4.5	3.7	14.3	11.7

[Sources: Unesco Statistics Yearbook, 1988: Table 4.1.]
* Mid-1970s but not 1975 or mid-1980s but not 1986.

Annex 6: Adult Literary and Illiteracy Rate, 1960-2000

Trend projections and variations (in ,000)

Country	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000	Changes 1960-80	Projected changes 1980-2000
Afghanistan	5,570 89.8%	6,815 87.7%	7,391 80.7%	8,458 73.4%	10,081 56.0%	1,821 -9.1%	2,690 -14.7%
Australia	130 1.8%	124 1.4%	111 1.0%	97 0.8%	73 0.5%	(19) -0.8%	(38) -0.5%
Bangladesh	21,750 71.3%	24,452 67.2%	32,153 67.7%	38,215 58.9%	43,432 50.0%	10,403 -3.6%	11,279 -17.7%
Bhutan	285 54.8%	459 73.6%	603 78.9%	665 69.5%	715 60.0%	318 24.1%	112 -18.9%
China	283,237 70.5%	263,983 52.7%	236,266 36.8%	208,054 25.9%	143,358 15.0%	(46,971) -33.7%	(92,908) -21.8%
Fiji	90 43.9%	77 26.2%	70 17.8%	68 13.9%	58 10.0%	(20) -26.1%	(12) -7.8%
Hong Kong	600 33.0%	571 23.0%	549 14.6%	523 11.3%	427 8.0%	(51) -18.4%	(122) -6.6%
India	177,895 66.8%	206,563 62.5%	235,231 55.6%	257,059 47.3%	262,590 39.0%	57,336 -11.2%	27,359 -16.6%
Indonesia	28,575 49.7%	28,803 41.5%	28,325 31.8%	23,773 20.4%	13,110 9.0%	(250) -17.9%	(15,215) -22.8%
Iran, Islamic Rep.	10,139 94.3%	11,023 72.2%	11,906 55.1%	11,783 39.0%	9,367 23.0%	1,767 -39.2%	(2,539) -32.1%
Japan	900 1.4%	840 1.1%	690 0.8%	488 0.5%	218 0.2%	(210) -0.6%	(472) -0.6%
Republic of Korea	3,919 27.0%	2,778 15.0%	2,101 8.3%	1,758 5.7%	1,118 3.0%	(1,818) -18.7%	(983) -5.3%
Lao PDR	220 15.9%	199 11.4%	181 8.6%	178 6.6%	160 4.5%	(39) -7.3%	(21) -4.1%
Malaysia	2,341 51.8%	2,701 45.3%	2,400 28.7%	2,034 18.4%	1,140 8.0%	59 -23.1%	(1,260) -20.7%
Mongolia	136 25.0%	137 19.5%	100 10.6%	88 6.8%	52 3.0%	(36) -14.4%	(48) -7.6%
Myanmar	4,377 34.2%	4,673 29.3%	4,969 24.3%	5,294 20.2%	5,253 16.0%	592 -9.9%	284 -8.3%
Nepal	5,012 86.5%	5,921 87.8%	6,900 83.2%	8,015 74.1%	9,049 65.0%	1,888 -3.3%	2,149 -18.2%
New Zealand	30 1.9%	27 1.4%	24 1.0%	20 0.8%	15 0.5%	(6) -0.9%	(9) -0.5%
Pakistan	24,500 86.9%	28,014 79.4%	33,999 70.9%	39,113 60.5%	42,853 50.0%	9,499 -16.0%	8,854 -20.9%
Papua New Guinea	977 85.5%	1,034 73.6%	1,107 62.9%	1,113 47.7%	998 32.5%	130 -22.6%	(109) -30.4%
Philippines	4,140 28.0%	3,646 17.8%	4,627 16.5%	4,042 10.8%	2,444 5.0%	487 -11.5%	(2,183) -11.5%
Singapore	461 49.7%	394 31.0%	301 17.1%	212 8.3%	81 3.5%	(160) -32.6%	(220) -13.6%
Sri Lanka	2,246 39.2%	1,782 24.5%	1,318 13.7%	1,085 9.9%	851 6.0%	(928) -25.5%	(467) -7.7%
Thailand	4,825 33.0%	4,039 20.2%	3,297 11.8%	2,958 8.0%	1,945 4.2%	(1,528) -21.2%	(1,352) -7.6%
Turkey	11,000 68.0%	10,101 48.6%	9,384 34.4%	8,697 25.2%	8,010 18.0%	(1,616) -33.6%	(1,374) -16.4%
Viet Nam	6,125 28.0%	5,009 20.9%	4,621 14.8%	4,441 11.4%	4,262 8.0%	(1,504) -14.0%	(359) -6.8%
TOTAL	599,460	614,165	628,624	628,231	561,660	29,144	(66,964)

Source: Unesco PROAP estimates and projections as assessed in November 1989.

[Reproduced from Unesco/PROAP, 1989.]

Annex 7: National systems of formal education (as at mid-1980s)

	Compulsory Education		Age & Duraiton for 1st, 2nd Levels												
	Age Limit	Duration	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Afghanistan	7-15	8			P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S	-S	-S	-S
Am. Samoa	6-18	12		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	S2	-S2	
Australia	6-16	9, 10		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2	
Bangladesh	6-10	5		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2	
Bhutan	-	-			P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	S2	-S2		
Brunei Dar.	5-16	9		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2
Burma	5-10	5	P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2			
China	7-16	9			P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2
Cook Islands	6-16	10		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	S2	-S2
Cyprus	6-15	9	P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2	-S2	
Fiji	-	-		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S	-S	-S	-S	-S	-S
Fr. Polynesia	6-14	8		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2	-S2
Guam	5-16	11		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2	-S2
Hong Kong	6-15	9		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2	S3-S3
India	6-11	5		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2	-S2	-S2
Indonesia	7-13	6			P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2
Japan	6-15	9		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2	-S2
Kampuchea, D.	6-12	6		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2
Kiribati	6-14	9		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2	-S2
Korea, DPR	5-15	10		P	-P	-P	-P	S	-S	-S	-S	-S	-S			
Korea, R. of	6-12	6		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2	-S2
Lao PDR	7-12	5		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2	-S2	
Macau	6-12	5		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	S2	-S2	-S2		
Maldives	-	-		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2
Maylaysia	6-15	9		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2	-S2
Mongolia	8-16	8				P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2	
Nauru	6-16	10		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S	-S	-S	-S	
Nepal	6-11	5		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	S2	-S2	-S2		
New Caledonia	6-16	10		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2	-S2
New Zealand	5-15	10	P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2	-S2
Niue	5-15	10	P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S	-S	-S	-S	-S	
Norfolk Is.	5-16	11	P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S	-S	-S	-S		
Pacific Is.	6-14	8		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	S2	-S2
Pakistan	-	-	P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2	-S2	-S2		
PNG	-	-			P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	-S1	S2 -S2
Philippines	7-13	6			P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S	-S	-S	-S	
Singapore	-	-		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2
Solomon Is.	-	-		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2	
Sri Lanka	5-15	10	P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2
Thailand	7-15	7			P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2 -S2
Tokelau	5-15	10	P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S	-S		
Tonga	6-14	6		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S	-S	-S	-S	-S	-S -S
Turkey	6-11	5		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2	-S2		
Tuvalu	7-15	9		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2 -S2
Viet Nam	6-11	6		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2	-S2
Vanuatu	-	-		P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2 -S2
Western Samoa	-	-	P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	-P	S1	-S1	-S1	-S1	S2	-S2 -S2

[Source: Unesco Statistics Yearbook, 1988: Table 3.1.]

Annex 8: Enrolment situations in primary education

Trend projections (in ,000)

Country		1960	1970	1980	1990	2000	1960-80	1980-2000
Afghanistan	E	237	541	1,116	807	2,008	879	892
	N	1,609	1,867	2,722	3,761	4,023	1,113	1,301
Australia	E	1,564	1,812	1,718	1,540	1,604	154	(114)
	N	145	72	30	31	4	(115)	(26)
Bangladesh	E	3,291	3,970	8,240	11,977	15,715	4,949	7,475
	N	4,249	5,095	6,688	6,846	6,599	2,439	(89)
Bhutan	E	1	8	30	78	126	28	96
	N	138	159	179	180	174	43	(5)
China	E	67,293	95,837	146,270	127,641	117,660	78,977	(28,610)
	N	47,715	29,648	14,138	8,147	2,401	(33,577)	(11,737)
Fiji	E	76	121	116	114	111	40	(5)
	N	13	9	1	4	9	(12)	8
Hong Kong	E	450	740	540	573	606	90	66
	N	104	62	40	44	44	(64)	4
India	E	34,994	57,045	73,873	98,482	123,090	38,879	49,217
	N	41,922	29,683	30,372	17,076	1,646	(11,550)	(28,726)
Indonesia	E	8,995	14,870	25,537	29,719	33,982	16,542	8,445
	N	8,090	8,373	4,744	2,593	153	(3,346)	(4,591)
Iran, Islamic Rep.	E	1,436	3,416	4,799	7,653	10,507	3,363	5,708
	N	2,624	1,677	1,899	1,166	16	(725)	(1,883)
Japan	E	12,754	9,558	11,827	9,782	9,793	(927)	(2,034)
	N	569	201	55	39	22	(514)	(33)
Republic of Korea	E	3,621	5,749	5,658	5,413	5,479	2,037	(179)
	N	350	107	21	17	12	(329)	(9)
Lao PDR	E	91	245	479	645	811	388	332
	N	297	283	208	195	174	(89)	(34)
Malaysia	E	1,272	1,688	2,009	2,380	2,751	737	742
	N	346	463	389	255	87	43	(302)
Mongolia	E	72	146	145	191	237	73	92
	N	39	17	16	14	11	(23)	(5)
Myanmar	E	1,601	3,178	4,148	4,946	5,744	2,547	1,596
	N	1,517	900	767	509	183	(750)	(584)
Nepal	E	125	390	1,068	1,903	2,738	943	1,670
	N	1,083	1,242	1,227	1,065	775	144	(452)
New Zealand	E	426	400	381	336	323	(45)	(58)
	N	6	3	1	1	1	(5)	0
Pakistan	E	2,793	3,993	5,474	8,723	11,972	2,681	6,498
	N	4,927	6,747	8,109	8,466	8,429	3,182	320
Papua New Guinea	E	64	191	300	448	597	236	297
	N	254	246	279	272	251	25	(28)
Philippines	E	4,001	6,414	8,300	10,344	12,389	4,299	4,089
	N	2,029	1,782	1,613	1,139	489	(416)	(1,124)
Singapore	E	285	363	292	286	280	7	(12)
	N	31	4	5	5	5	(26)	0
Sri Lanka	E	2,009	1,671	2,081	2,443	2,804	72	723
	N	627	430	455	242	13	(172)	(442)
Thailand	E	3,936	5,635	7,392	7,254	7,596	3,456	207
	N	2,340	3,083	1,587	973	263	(953)	(1,324)
Turkey	E	2,867	5,012	5,656	6,616	7,576	2,789	1,920
	N	1,219	436	740	554	302	(479)	(438)
Viet Nam	E	3,174	7,102	7,887	8,864	9,841	4,713	1,954
	N	1,630	28	728	512	235	(902)	(493)
TOTAL	E	157,429	231,875	325,336	349,158	386,343	167,907	61,007
TOTAL	N	124,071	91,992	77,013	54,106	28,321	(47,058)	(50,692)

E: Enrolled N: Non-enrolled

Source: Unesco PROAP estimates and projections as assessed in October 1989.

[Reproduced from Unesco/PROAP, 1989:14.]

Annex 9: Annual Number of Drop-outs from Primary Education

Trend projections (in ,000)

Country	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000	Changes 1960-80	Projected changes 1980-2000
Afghanistan	9	42	76	79	101	67	25
Australia	32	23	14	10	7	(18)	(7)
Bangladesh	749	1,537	2,325	2,836	2,917	1,576	592
Bhutan	1	2	7	17	26	6	19
China	4,130	4,140	4,150	3,701	2,418	20	(1,732)
Fiji	3	3	2	2	1	(1)	(1)
Hong Kong	27	20	13	6	5	(14)	(8)
India	9,032	11,068	13,104	11,473	8,510	4,072	(4,594)
Indonesia	965	1,222	1,480	1,475	1,027	515	(453)
Iran, Islamic Rep.	140	196	252	273	230	112	(22)
Japan	111	74	36	33	21	(75)	(15)
Republic of Korea	192	160	128	67	44	(64)	(84)
Lao PDR	2	56	110	142	131	108	21
Malaysia	17	14	12	9	6	(5)	(6)
Mongolia	8	7	7	5	4	(1)	(3)
Myanmar	202	277	351	344	272	149	(79)
Nepal	51	93	226	349	357	175	131
New Zealand	9	6	3	2	1	(6)	(2)
Pakistan	530	671	813	1,031	1,262	283	449
Papua New Guinea	7	15	24	32	39	17	15
Philippines	522	599	676	654	566	154	(110)
Singapore	14	9	5	2	1	(9)	(4)
Sri Lanka	162	98	35	14	13	(127)	(22)
Thailand	648	718	790	620	297	144	(493)
Turkey	562	466	370	234	192	(192)	(178)
Viet Nam	560	587	614	378	303	54	(311)
TOTAL	18,683	22,103	25,623	23,788	18,751	6,940	(6,872)

Source: Unesco PROAP estimates and projections as assessed in October 1989.

[Reproduced from Unesco/PROAP, 1989:23.]

Annex 10: Enrolment Ratios at Secondary Levels

	1975		1986	
	Gross	Net	Gross	Net
Afghanistan	7		6	
Bangladesh	19		18	
Bhutan	1 (76)		4	
Burma	22		24 (83)	
China	46		42	
Cyprus	79	66	90	80
Hong Kong	49	46	69	64
India	28		35 (84)	
Indonesia	20	17	41	37
Japan	92		96	96
Korea, R. of	56	52	95 (87)	
Lao, PDR.	7		19 (85)	
Maylasia	44		59 (87)	
Mongolia	81		92	
Nepal	13		25 (85)	
Pakistan	15		18	
Philippines	54		68	52
Singapore	52		71 (84)	
Sri Lanka	48		66	
Thailand	26		29	
Turkey	29		44	35
Viet Nam	39		43 (85)	
Australia	87	79	96	87
Fiji	44		-	
New Zealand	81	79	84	
Pupua New Guinea	12		-	

[Source: Unesco Statistics Yearbook, 1988: Table 3.2.]